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THE GOOD CITIZEN

A TEXTBOOK IN SOCIAL AND
VOCATIONAL CIVICS

BY

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*The cover design is drawn from Daniel
Chester French's statue of Abraham Lincoln
in the Lincoln Memorial at Washington.*

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PREFACE

A COURSE in Social and Vocational Civics should provide those situations and opportunities for boys and girls which will lead them to the possession of those units of knowledge, of those appreciations, desires, aspirations, and ideals, and of those habits and powers which will enable them not only to function personally, realistically, and in the fullest measure in the coöperative activities of their smaller and more natural groups, but also in the activities of their more remote, complex, and larger groups, the State, the Nation, humanity.

With these purposes in mind the authors have prepared this course of study and submit it to the schools of America.

They have drawn largely upon the recorded experiences and ideas of educators, to all of whom they here extend their keen appreciation.

The authors feel that they should make especial mention of their debt of gratitude to Professor Albion W. Small, of the University of Chicago, for his inspiration to social thinking; to Professor Robert E. Park, of the University of Chicago, for his encouragement of the activities idea; to Principal Frank L. Morse, who permitted the experimental use of materials in the Harrison Technical High School of Chicago; and to Mr. Charles A. Seymour, under whose supervision some of the materials were used in the Polytechnic High School of Long Beach, California.

Much indebted, too, are the authors to the numerous business firms and agencies which have furnished freely many of the photographs and other illustrative materials.

The authors also wish to express their appreciation to the Editorial Staff of Houghton Mifflin Company. Without their professional, sympathetic, and constructive suggestions this book would not have appeared in its present form.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS

ANY course of study must be adapted to the immediate conditions under which it is taught. We have endeavored to introduce many suggestions in connection with each unit of study in order to provide ample materials from which the teacher may select those which are adapted to her particular situation as regards local happenings and the personnel of her class group.

In any given locality the course should be planned and developed in such a way that advantage can be taken of the local organizations, institutions, affairs, and events which are taking place outside the school. Many valuable suggestions for such adaptations are to be found in Professor Snedden's recent book, *Civic Education*.

The authors urge the utmost need for teachers to make careful analyses of the many complex conditions existing in their communities before undertaking any outside activities with their groups. Even good citizens do not always understand the motives or methods of progressive teachers. In the event that misunderstanding develops, a teacher's usefulness is likely to be crippled. Perhaps but few activities can be carried on successfully in some communities the first year.

To the teacher inexperienced in the methods projected in this course of study, we suggest that only a few community activities be undertaken at first. If too much is tried, careful attention cannot be given to learning the technique for successful group leadership, and also, if too much is undertaken, the activities may consume an unjustifiable amount of time and energy.

It is suggested, further, that if the child is to realize his fullest development, the teacher should deal only with those suggestions and questions at the beginnings of chapters and at the ends of the sections which can be treated in a thorough and satisfactory manner. Above all things, children must not be permitted to be satisfied with snap judgments nor with careless work. Open-mindedness and the desire for complete information are among the worthy purposes of instruction.

We are giving below a suggestive, but incomplete, list of activities and methods which have been used to advantage in Civics classes of the Junior High School level:

1. *Attendance at public meetings.* Pupils who are encouraged to attend public meetings with adults where matters of public concern are discussed, as fire-prevention rallies and the like, feel their membership in the community group.

2. *Bulletin board.* A bulletin board belonging to or assigned to a group, and placed in a conspicuous place in the hall of the school, provides an opportunity for excellent school service. Upon it can be posted slogans for school and community, clippings, notices of programs, reports of surveys, charts, etc.

3. *Class library.* Materials of various types which are immediately available for class or individual use are necessary and are invaluable assets. The filing of materials, their care, and handling constitute good activities, besides functioning as a good example of economy. Examples of materials are pictures, pamphlets, reports, time-tables, placards, "community books," bulletins, programs, graphs, tabulated data, forms, such as passports, jury summonses, charters, wills, deeds, mortgages, subpoenas, income-tax statements, warrants, ballots, signs of forest rangers, naturalization papers, etc.

4. *Class organization.* Organize the class as a parliamentary group for class, school, and community work. Secure the appointment of committees such as correspondence, bulletin and publicity, exhibit, room library, social service, current events, safety-first, program, thrift, dramatics, activities, join-a-club, "community book," school attendance, school service, decoration and beautification, room and school clean-up, community health.

a. Change personnel of officers and committees at regular intervals, six weeks, for example.

b. Have new committees appointed as occasions arise.

c. Encourage officers to require efficient committee service.

5. *Community textbook.* Many valuable ends may be realized by having the group construct a "textbook" of their work for the year. Such a book contains chapters written in standard form using materials which the group has collected. It is illustrated with photographs or snapshots, drawings, and clippings. Committees can work

on the various units and types of material. This project not only gives many opportunities for the functioning of the group and its committees, but also constitutes a most profitable correlation between Civics, English, Penmanship, Spelling, and Art.

6. *Coöperative service in civic and social programs.* Pupils may take a very active part in carrying on some of the community activities, as cleaning lots, planting and caring for trees, constructing playground and park equipment, rubbish receptacles, fly-traps, bird-houses, etc., serving as guides at conventions, conducting information bureaus, distributing handbills, preparing posters, writing invitations or announcements, organizing and working in Junior Chambers of Commerce, Junior Farm Bureaus, Junior Police Departments, Junior Fire Departments, selling Christmas seals, collecting old newspapers, clothing, etc., home gardening, etc.

7. *Debates.*

8. *Dramatics.*

a. Dramatization of historical events. The value is enhanced if a public performance is given.

b. Mock procedure, as voting, trials, legislation, naturalization. The use of mock procedure is limited in value because the time consumed is disproportionate to the value received.

c. Pageants.

9. *Developmental readings in narrative, fiction, biography, travel, and poetry.* An excellent discussion on the use of this method is contained in Professor Bobbitt's book, *The Curriculum*, Chapter XII.

10. *Exhibits and posters.* Pupils receive excellent civic training if they feel that they are performing necessary services in the community. Statistics concerning the community gathered by the class can often be worked into graphic form and be placed on exhibition in libraries, Chambers of Commerce, in the school, or in other suitable public places. For example, the making of a church survey followed by designing a church directory on a cardboard and posting in a hotel or elsewhere has marked merit.

11. *Formal drill and recitation work on the fundamental units of knowledge.*

12. *Interviewing officials and other citizens.*

13. *Problem-provoking questions and suggestions.*

14. *Programs.* Groups can initiate or participate in class, joint-class, school, and community programs for entertainment, instruction, commemoration, and other purposes. Some examples are programs for birthdays of great Americans, holidays, Health Week, Educational Week, Thrift Week, Clean-up Week, Fire-Prevention Week, etc. An infrequent pay-assembly program has marked civic value if it is for the purpose of securing money for some worthy service project, as flowers for the sick, crutches for a crippled child, clothing for the poor, or food for the distressed in a foreign land.

15. *Pupil self-rating score cards.* A score card with suggestions for its use is presented by Upton and Chassell in the *Teachers College Record*, January, 1922.

16. *School government. Extra-curricular activities.* These offer great opportunities for the development of leadership and for giving personal experience in coöperative activities. Miss Laura M. Johnston describes a most excellent plan in the *Elementary School Journal*, volume XXII, pp. 615-20. Professor Fretwell has recorded a good bibliography on extra-curricular activities in the *Teachers College Record*, January, 1923.

17. *Speeches.* The group may arrange for representatives from various community activities to speak to the class, to groups of classes, to the school, or, if feasible, to groups of representatives from different classes. Speakers may also be obtained for joint-school and extra-school groups.

18. *Themes.*

Note. To avoid the appearance of officiousness, which easily arises when children are working in surveys, interviewing officials, etc., the teacher will find it expedient always to function as an intermediary by preparing the way with a letter or conference beforehand. Officials are usually interested and are willing to coöperate with teachers, but they should not be annoyed, neither should their time be wasted; and, on the other hand, the child's development should not be thwarted by preventable unpleasantness. It has proved practicable for teachers to accompany all groups which leave the school premises on activities, except in cases where the pupils are working

under the leadership and authority of officials, as in the Junior clubs and departments.

In cities where there are more than two or three civics groups a federated civics club, made up of representatives from the different groups, can be organized. This organization can arrange for excursions, direct the collection of materials, organize drives, etc. This avoids many of the annoyances to officials, provides for the economical collection and distribution of materials, etc., and gives experience in true representative procedure.

Marshall and Judd's *Lessons in Community and National Life*, referred to frequently in the sections on "Reading for the Pupil," may be obtained from the Office of Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. They come in three separate pamphlets: Series A "For the Upper Classes of the High School"; Series B "For the First Class of the High School and the Upper Grades of the Elementary School"; and Series C "For the Intermediate Grades of the Elementary School." The price of each of these three pamphlets is 15 cents.

CONTENTS

I. INTRODUCTORY — OUR LIFE TOGETHER	1
II. THE CHILD IN THE FAMILY	2
III. THE CITIZEN'S COMMUNITY LIFE	13
IV. EDUCATION IN THE COMMUNITY	28
V. THE CHURCH IN THE COMMUNITY	57
VI. THE NEWSPAPER IN THE COMMUNITY	67
VII. FIRE AND POLICE PROTECTION	80
VIII. THE HEALTH OF OUR COMMUNITY	95
IX. RECREATION IN THE COMMUNITY	115
X. THE LESS FORTUNATE MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNITY	125
XI. CONSERVING OUR NATURAL RESOURCES: THRIFT	142
XII. COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORTATION	162
XIII. CITY PLANS AND CIVIC BEAUTY	187
XIV. THE CITIZEN AND HIS WORK	207
XV. THE COMING OF THE FACTORY	221
XVI. THE CORPORATION IN INDUSTRY	234
XVII. THE MODERN WORKMAN	249
XVIII. THE MODERN FARMER	273
XIX. THE MEANING OF DEMOCRACY	293
XX. CITIZENSHIP IN OUR DEMOCRACY	310
XXI. POLITICAL PARTIES	324
XXII. LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN TOWNSHIPS AND COUNTIES	336
XXIII. LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN CITIES	350

XXIV. STATE GOVERNMENT	368
XXV. OUR NATIONAL GOVERNMENT	387
XXVI. OUR INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS	419
APPENDIX: THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES	i
INDEX	xix

THE GOOD CITIZEN



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTORY — OUR LIFE TOGETHER

THE earliest records of human history are stories of people living in groups. Such tales indicate that man's most vital interests in those early times were closely related to the welfare of the other members of his tribe. Together the men organized fishing, hunting, and raiding expeditions. Together they protected their scanty possessions from the attacks of their enemies. Together they won their victories, and together they celebrated their festivals. The man cast out by his tribe for his failure to work for its best interests was either killed by beasts of prey or enslaved by a neighboring tribe. Thus in the early stages of the development of our institutions it was absolutely impossible for a man to exist outside the protection of some group.

As civilization has advanced, people have gained more liberty to select their associates, to dwell where they please, to travel afar, and to adopt new manners and customs. However, a man's greatest interests are still bound up with the welfare of others. For our sustenance, our activities, our ideas, and our ideals, every one of us is dependent upon other people. The liberty of action that has developed with the progress of civilization is still limited by the requirements of group life.

In the following chapters we shall study some of the groups to which we belong. We shall see why these groups exist, what they do for us, and what are our obligations to them.

CHAPTER II

THE CHILD IN THE FAMILY

THE first group with which a child comes into direct relationship is his family. Why should we study the family group? What benefits does a child receive from his family, and what can he contribute to its well-being? What connection is there between life in the family circle and good citizenship? Let us see.

Problems for you to investigate

THE DWELLINGS OF OUR NEIGHBORHOOD

A home is much more than a dwelling-place. Nevertheless, families cannot contribute their best service to the welfare of the community if they are handicapped by unwholesome or unpleasant living conditions. In this study we shall try to discover what are some of the elements of good housing and what our community is doing to improve housing conditions.

- I. Select a typical block in some residence district convenient to your school. Make a map of this block showing:
 1. Location and width of the streets surrounding the block.
 2. Alleys or courtyards.
 3. Size of lots.
 4. Space occupied by buildings.
- II. Make a special study of the dwellings in this block. Find out, in so far as possible:
 1. Are the occupants owners or renters? Why is a homeowner likely to be a better citizen than a renter?
 2. Which are more numerous, detached houses or apartment houses? What are the advantages and disadvantages of living in a detached house? In an apartment? In which do you prefer to live? Why?
 3. Judging from the number and placing of the windows, and from the open spaces between the dwellings, decide

whether or not the rooms in the houses in this block can receive adequate air and sunlight. What is the relationship between light, air, and ventilation in houses, and the health of their occupants? Why is sunshine in the home more important to a family with several small children than to a family of adults?

4. Are the yards in good condition? Do the people show an interest in shrubs, lawns, flowers, and gardens? What difference does an attractive yard make in the life of the family?



A RESIDENCE DISTRICT IN SEATTLE

Notice the large number of trees, the well-kept lawns, and the abundance of light and air. Such surroundings assist the family group to perform its tasks well. (*Courtesy of Seattle Chamber of Commerce.*)

- III. Nearly all states have a Bureau of Housing and Immigration. Appoint a committee to prepare and send a letter to the Bureau at your state capital asking for reports of the work it has done to improve housing conditions in the communities of your state.

Perhaps a survey has been made in your community. If

so, get the report on housing and compare the block you are studying with the rest of the community.

Literature on housing may be obtained from the National Housing Association at 105 East Twenty-Second Street, New York. Pamphlets are five and ten cents each.

1. Our families link us with people of many lands.

White men established their first permanent settlements in America about thirteen generations ago. Within these thirteen generations many thousands of people have come to our shores, bringing with them traditions and ideals from all the countries of Europe and from the distant parts of Asia and Africa. To New England, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Georgia, and the Carolinas came English settlers. The Dutch established homes in New York. In Delaware were the Swedes, and in Florida were the Spanish. The French reared the first outposts of civilization in the Mississippi Valley. In later years have come people from every nation on our globe. Thus the blood of many nations forms the American people, and the relatives of American families are in every land.

1. Where were your parents born? Your grandparents? Your great-grandparents? How many nationalities do these ancestors represent?
2. How many nationalities are represented by the grandparents of the members of your class? Make lists.

2. The family continues the life of the race.

This is the first service of the family: to produce the new individuals to whom the tasks of the human race can be bequeathed as the older generation disappears. If we wish the population of our nation to increase, and if we do not care to depend upon immigration from foreign lands to satisfy this desire, conditions must be such that the total number of births in our country shall exceed the total number of deaths. Many efforts are being made to maintain this relationship by decreasing the number of deaths. This purpose is accomplished by

improving sanitation especially in homes and factories, by increasing the purity of food and water supplies, by spreading health education, by extending education in the care and feeding of infants, by assisting movements for accident prevention, and by similar measures. It is only by protecting and conserving the lives of the individuals brought into the world by the families of our nation and of other nations that the life of the race can be continued.

1. If the population at the beginning of a year is 110 million, and if there are nine more births than deaths per thousand, what will the population be at the end of the year? (Exclude other factors.)

3. A long period of infancy enables parents to teach their offspring the way to live.

When we study biology we find that the period of growth and development of the higher animals is much more prolonged than among the lower forms. Biologists tell us that this is because the life activities of the lower animals are comparatively simple, and therefore their young do not need elaborate training by their parents. They depend upon their inherited abilities and instincts. But with the higher animals, including man, the conditions of survival are so much more complex and are fraught with so many dangers that it becomes absolutely necessary for the offspring to have more than their instincts to guide them. They must be taught by adults who have had experience. It is for this reason that birds teach their little ones to fly, and lions teach their cubs to hunt.

Compared with the fledgling or the cub, the immaturity and helplessness of the infant are extreme. No matter how great the parents' achievements have been, the child must learn from the beginning to walk, to talk, to observe, and to think for himself. Yet this very immaturity and helplessness of the infant child combined with his inherited ability to learn are the factors that make education possible. To give such education to the growing child is the second task of the family group.

1. Have you ever tried to train a baby chick to do anything? Were you successful?
2. Have you ever tried to train a puppy? Was it more or less difficult than training the chick? Can you account for the difference in ability to take training?
3. Compare a chick one month old with its mother. In what ways is it still dependent? Make the same comparison between an infant one month old and its mother. Do you see any advantages on the infant's side?

4. The child learns its language in the family.

One of the first things a baby learns is that it can attract attention by crying. Of course it cannot tell us what particular thing it desires; but its wants are so few that the mother soon learns to interpret its cries. This range of wants broadens as the baby grows older, and crying can no longer bring satisfactory responses from the mother. Queer shouts in major and minor keys bring somewhat improved results. Gradually the child begins to imitate the spoken words of the members of its family, for it is from the lips of parents, brothers, and sisters that the child learns its first language lessons. First come crude attempts which nobody but its mother can understand, then real words, and then the expression of ideas in sentences. Thus the rudiments of learning to talk grow out of the baby's needs, its ability to cry, and its power to imitate the sounds made by those near it.

1. Have you ever studied a foreign language? If so, can you speak it fluently? How long did it take you to learn what you now know?
2. How long does it usually take a child to learn the rudiments of his native language? Do you think the family is a good language teacher? Why?
3. What advantages does language give human beings over animals? What would probably happen to our civilization if all power to communicate with one another were suddenly shattered? Why?

5. The child's early habits and opinions are formulated in his family.

At the time when a child is learning the language of his family, he is also learning its ideas. In fact the great purpose of language is to enable us to exchange ideas. The young child accepts the ideas, or opinions, of his family even as he accepts their names for familiar objects. At first these opinions deal largely with good manners and good habits.



A FAMILY OUTING

Days of recreation amid beautiful surroundings draw the members of the family together and help them to realize their aims and ideals. (*Courtesy of Chicago Boosters' Publicity Club.*)

While the child follows his mother in her round of household chores, he watches her wash dishes, open windows, dust the furniture, care for clothing, and prepare food. From her he learns to put his toys in their assigned places, to keep things clean, and to eat his food in the proper way. These early lessons are learned as language is learned, that is, by imitation.

After the child starts to school and is regularly in the company of other children from other homes, parents usually try to help their children with some of their new problems. They do this through conversation at the table, through chats in the evening, through books and newspapers, through outings in pleasant places, and through their own way of living. The child's new experiences are discussed in his family, and his ideas are formulated. They are usually of the same general trend as the ideas of his parents. Also, because of the intimate companionship between parents and children many of the child's ideas concerning music, art, business, literature, politics, and religion are received in the family.

These early ideas, although modified by later experience in groups outside of the family, form the basis of comparison for many of our later impressions. For example, most of us like our meals prepared as our mothers prepared them. We dislike restaurant food, not because it is not as nutritious as home-cooked food, but because it is different. In our political life our first impulse is to vote as father voted. It is hard, painfully hard, to do independent thinking. Even after we have been shown beyond question of a doubt that a new way is better than the old, our opinions developed in home life keep drawing us back to the old familiar habits and opinions formulated in childhood. Through this instruction the family preserves traditional habits and opinions, and thereby lays a firm foundation upon which the child can base his independent thinking.

1. What opinions and tastes of yours are like those of your father and mother? What ones are different? Can you account for these similarities and differences?
2. Are traditions of any practical use? If so, what? If not, why do we hold on to them?
3. Give one example of an opinion you held as a small child but do not hold now. How was this opinion modified when you started to school? Has it been modified since? If so, how?

6. The family trains children in habits of industry.

On the good old-fashioned farm the whole family unites in the business of making a living. The father works in the fields, cares for his implements, and plans the marketing of his produce. The mother cooks, sews, cans fruits and vegetables for winter use, and cares for the children. In many of these tasks the children help. Usually each child is assigned a definite part of the daily routine. The performance of the same task at the same time day after day develops habits of industry which will not easily be lost.

In the city, home life is entirely different, especially when the family lives in a rented apartment, in a house with no yard adjoining, or in a closely settled district. However, the leisure thus gained for the children may be



HOMES OF UNSKILLED LABORERS

There are tens of thousands of homes like these in Philadelphia and in many other cities in the United States. The closeness of other families makes it difficult for parents to develop the best possibilities in their children. (Courtesy of the National Housing Association.)

spent in playing games, in making collections, in reading, in athletics, or in odd-hour work for the grocer or news-stand. When boys and girls do definite work at a definite time each day, our homes are developing habits of industry.

1. Compare your daily tasks with those of your father at your age. Which tasks are more difficult? More interesting? Which develop greater habits of industry? Why?
2. Are you responsible for certain work at home? Do you see any connection between such responsibility and success in your school work? Why?

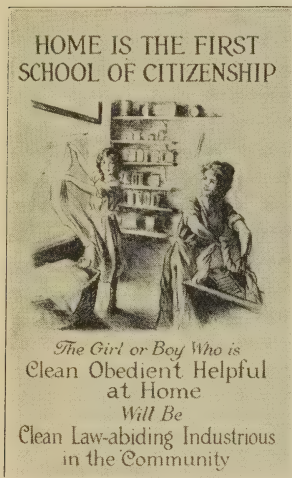
7. Our first lessons in citizenship are learned in our family group.

The ideal family circle is made up of father, mother, brothers, and sisters. All have kindly feelings toward one another. All are comrades in work and play. All are directing their efforts toward making home the center of love and companionship. There, as small children, we learn to be of

service to others, to sacrifice for others, and to respect the rights of others. We learn to respect the authority of our parents and to obey their commands cheerfully. From this experience we learn that rules and commands are a necessary part of group life. We show our loyalty by our willing service, coöperation, and devotion.

These qualities of disposition and character prepare the way for good citizenship in any group. For example, if we have learned to respect the authority of our parents, we have little difficulty in respecting the authority of our teacher in school, of the policeman on the city

street, and of the law of our state and nation. Also, loyalty to our family prepares the way for loyalty to the larger groups to which we belong. The same is true of the other lessons learned in our family circle. However, if our family fails to teach us these lessons, it is hardly possible that we shall learn them elsewhere, for no other group can give the time and energy necessary for the development of such qualities. For these reasons many writers tell us that the strength of the nation depends upon the well-ordered homes of the people, and that no nation can be destroyed while it possesses a good home life.



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The third purpose of the family is to provide for a permanent comradeship of husband and wife whereby each will be able to help the other to develop many qualities that will make them finer men and women and of greater value to the communities in which they live. This purpose is often achieved more fully when there are children because they have a strong common interest in the children, but even when there are no children the family life of husband and wife can be of inestimable value to both of them and to the community.

1. What do you mean by the phrase, "a good home life"?
2. No nation can be destroyed while it possesses a good home life. Do you agree?
3. It is chiefly in the family that children learn to sacrifice for others. Do you agree with this statement? In what other places is it possible to learn this lesson?

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Dunn, *Community Civics and Rural Life*. (Heath.)
Chap. IX — "The Home."
The author shows the relationship between the home in rural districts and the rural community.
2. Dunn, *Community Civics for City Schools*. (Heath.)
Chap. IX — "The Community and the Home."
This chapter is written from the standpoint of a city dweller.
3. Hill, *Community Life and Civic Problems*. (Ginn.)
Chap. II — "The Family."
This reference contains many comparisons of the human family with similar groups among the lower animals, and also some very fine inspirational pages on the ideal family.
4. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.¹
Lesson C-20 — "The Family and Social Control."
The lesson shows how the rules and customs of the family help all of us to live together harmoniously.
5. Paine, "Flat-Dwellers in a Great City," *World's Work*, May, 1905.
6. Garland, *A Son of the Middle Border*. (Macmillan.)
Most of the book gives us pictures of the life of a pioneer family on the prairies. Every boy will find it good reading.
7. Garland, *A Daughter of the Middle Border*. (Macmillan.)
It is a companion book to *A Son of the Middle Border*. Girls will find it worth while.
8. Franklin, *Autobiography*. (Holt.)
Chap. I — "Ancestry, and Early Life in Boston."

¹ See "Suggestions to Teachers," page viii.

THE GOOD CITIZEN

This chapter shows what a great influence Franklin's home and family exercised over his early life.

9. Whittier, *Snow-Bound*.
In this poem we see a family on a New England farm in the grip of winter. It is one of the few pieces of poetry which lays emphasis on the fireplace as the focus of family life.
10. Roosevelt, *An Autobiography*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. I — "Boyhood and Youth."
The first part of this chapter is an inspiring study of the ancestry and family life of a great American. Later parts deal with trips abroad and his life at Harvard University.
11. Bishop, *Theodore Roosevelt's Letters to His Children*. (Scribner's.)
This fascinating collection of letters shows Roosevelt's deep and abiding love of his children, his family, and his home.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Henderson, *The Social Spirit in America*. (Scott, Foresman.)
Chap. II — "Home-Making as a Social Art."
Chap. III — "Better Houses for the People."
These two chapters give a vivid picture of the relation of wholesome family life to the well-being of the community.
2. Ellwood, *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*. (American Book Co.)
Chap. III — "The Family in Social Organization."
Chap. VII — "The Problem of the Modern Family."
3. Dewey and Tufts, *Ethics*. (Holt.)
Chap. XXVI — "The Family."
The authors give a splendid discussion of the family in its moral aspects.
4. Cooley, *Human Nature and the Social Order*. (Scribner's.)
The book is a very thorough discussion of the relation of the individual to his social environment.
5. Smith, *Introduction to Educational Sociology*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
Chap. IV — "The Family."
This chapter is a good statement of the new demands being made on the family group.
6. Dealey, *The Family*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
7. Ellis, *The Task of Social Hygiene*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
Chap. V — "The Significance of a Falling Birth-Rate."
Ellis thinks there is a close relationship between a falling birth-rate and social progress.

CHAPTER III

THE CITIZEN'S COMMUNITY LIFE

OUR study of the family has shown the necessity for coöperation between father, mother, and children. But if human coöperation had ceased with the family, we should have to spend most of our time in obtaining food, in keeping warm, and in warding off the enemy lurking in the shadows just outside the glow of our family camp-fire. Under present conditions we are reasonably safe from physical dangers. We procure food in such variety as people a century ago would have considered impossible. Our everyday necessities are luxuries far beyond the dreams of our ancestors. For most of these changes we have to thank the spirit of coöperation among people organized in large groups, or in communities. When we use the word "community," we shall think of a group of people living in a common territory, having common interests, and working for the realization of common purposes. In this chapter we shall view some of the communities to which we belong, and we shall try to see what are our common interests and common purposes for which we are coöperating with the other members of these groups.

Problems for you to investigate

OUR CLASS AS A COMMUNITY

- I. In the studies of the life of your neighborhood, town, county, state, and nation, which you will find at the beginning of each chapter, you will discover many interesting suggestions that you and the other members of your class will wish to follow. You will be able to accomplish this purpose better if you all have a share in making and in carrying out the plans. The best means of enabling all the members of any group to share in duties and responsibilities of this kind is the organization of the group. A group is organized when it sets up and

THE GOOD CITIZEN

observes rules for the guidance of its members. These rules are sometimes called a constitution.

- A. Is there a set of rules to guide the members of your family? If so, who made the rules? What are they? If not, how do the members know what to do?
- B. Is there a set of rules to guide the people in your neighborhood? If so, who made them? If not, how do the people know what to do?
- C. Do you wish to have the members of your class decide on a set of rules, or a constitution, for their guidance? What will you gain if you organize your class in this way?

II. The usual steps in the organization of a group are:

- A. Election of temporary officers.
- B. Resolution to organize.
- C. Appointment of a committee to submit a draft of a constitution.
- D. Adjournment.

At the second meeting the business will be:

- A. Report of this committee.
- B. Discussion of this report and action on it.
- C. Election of permanent officers.

The first four steps may be taken at a brief meeting at the beginning of a recitation period. The second three steps will probably occupy all of a class period. Be sure to discuss the duties of each office before electing the officer — because you are not likely to make a wise choice until you know what he is to do. The draft of the constitution should be very simple. The following outline has been used successfully:

Article I. Name and object.

Article II. Members.

Article III. Officers.

Article IV. Meetings.

Article V. By-laws.

Article VI. Amendments.

The method of election of officers will probably be the source of considerable discussion. The temporary president will assist his group greatly if he appoints a committee to report on methods of election at the same time that he appoints the committee to draft the constitution.

By-laws may be enacted to cover any question of interest to the group. From time to time you will wish to include regulations about classes of members, duties of officers, elections, standing and special committees, kinds of meetings, payment of dues, a quorum, the method of amending by-laws, and the parliamentary authority to which you will refer.

1. Some groups bring us into close association with other people.

The simplest groups to which we belong are our family, our play group, our neighborhood, our team, our club, our church, and our school. Our play group, though important, is less



MAY DAY IN BETHLEHEM, PENNSYLVANIA

These little girls are not only having a good time winding their May-pole, but are also learning lessons in the art of living together. (*Courtesy of the Bethlehem Steel Company.*)

necessary, less strict, less durable than our family group. In childhood it is composed largely of children in our immediate neighborhood. Later it enlarges to include schoolmates. Among adults the play group may include men and women from neighboring cities and counties. In like manner the

scope of our neighborhood group, of our church group, and of our school group broadens.

No matter whether they are large or small, these groups help us to learn lessons in the art of living together, in the joy of working with others to secure benefits for all, and in the necessity of respecting the rights and desires of our associates. Through such experience we become conscious of the ways in which the threads of our lives are interwoven with those of other people, and, because we are intelligent beings, we are led to control and to direct our actions so that they will result in the greatest good to ourselves and to those near us.

1. Make a list of the groups involving "close association" to which you belong now. Opposite each group make a list of the advantages you gain by your membership in it, and also a list of your contributions to its life.
2. How does the number of groups to which you belong compare with the number to which your parents belong? Do you see reasons for this difference?

2. We are members of a community when we participate in its activities.

We begin to feel our membership in our family, our play group, our club, our team, and our church when we begin to consider *its* difficulties *our* difficulties, *its* needs *our* needs, and *its* success *our* success. For example, we feel our membership in our school group when we assist in providing new equipment, or when we support our debating team, our baseball team, or our football team. Before a contest we hold a rally at which we recount the victories our school has won; we practice our school songs and yells; we predict victory; and thus we develop enthusiasm for our side. At the game our presence, our cheering, and our confidence in our team help our boys or girls to put forth their best efforts. In this way the team and the student body work together for the victory. As individuals we take part in the activities of our school, and therefore we feel our membership in our school group.

1. What is "school spirit"? Do you prefer a school which has a highly developed school spirit or one without it? Why?
2. What is "esprit de corps"? Why do army officers work to develop it among their soldiers?
3. Make a list of the ways in which a member of a club may participate in its life.



A STUDENT BODY AT WORK

For the purpose of building a modern athletic field the student body of this school floated a bond issue of six thousand dollars. The denominations of the bonds ranged from one to one hundred dollars. The interest rate was six per cent. The expense of completing the plans was materially diminished when the boys of the school each donated one day's work putting the clay surface on the baseball field. The boys are shown at work on this project in this picture.

3. **Success in any group depends upon our ability to coöperate with our leaders for definite ends.**

In a football game the signals are given by the leader before each play is made. These signals tell every man just what he is expected to do. Whether or not the team makes a gain depends very largely upon each player's knowledge of the game and upon his honest effort to coöperate with his captain. A mistake by a quarter-back, tackle, guard, center, or end may result in losing the game. The successful team is

a unit in which each player makes himself responsible for his assigned task. It is usually team work that wins games.

These statements apply to many other groups of people in their community life. Just as a successful football team works intelligently under leadership for the honor of the school, so also all other successful groups define their aims, study them, and try to attain them. Rotary, Kiwanis, and



Courtesy of Laval Company

A CRITICAL PLAY

Lions' Clubs, and the fraternal orders help their members to form close friendships and to strive toward high ideals. Also, churches, schools, farm bureaus, and professional and recreation clubs have definite aims in view. The degree of success which these groups attain depends upon the same factors as the success of the football team, namely, knowledge of its purposes, enthusiasm for its ideals, and the willing coöperation of its members.

1. What are the chief purposes of some club to which you belong? Is it accomplishing its purposes? If so, how? If not, can you see why?

2. Why does enthusiasm for the ideals of your club help you to realize them?
3. In what ways does coöperation for the purposes of a club train you to be loyal to the club?
4. **We depend upon our industrial groups to help us to produce our daily necessities.**

Chilly autumn weather brings to our attention our need for a woolen overcoat. For several days we spend our leisure time looking at displays in the shop windows and reading advertisements. With the money we have we purchase the coat best adapted to our needs, and turn our attention to other things.



Courtesy of Oregon City Woolen Mills

SHEEP IN THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS

An article of this kind is so easily purchased that we give little thought to its production. We do not realize that a simple woolen coat is produced by workers in many lines whose tasks at first appear wholly unrelated to our garment. The shepherd, the shearer, the sorter of the wool, the wool-comber, the dyer, the spinner, and the weaver work directly on the wool to produce the cloth. But these men working alone could not produce finished garments; in fact, the begin-

ning of a woolen coat lies far back of the workers with wool, since before any of these men can do his part, he must have tools or machines. Thus it is that the men who mine the iron ore, who tend the blast-furnaces, who supply the coal and limestone for the smelting, who man the boats and trains that carry the ore and coal and limestone, all these and many others in shops and factories are required to provide the tools and machines used by the other workers mentioned. All these men upon whom, for example, the shearer depends for his shears are in turn dependent upon many others. The elevator that brings the miner to the surface after his day's work and the engines that are all-powerful in transporting goods from mine to factory and from factory to consumer, are complicated pieces of machinery upon which many laborers have spent their time. Yet all are necessary helpers in shearing the sheep. If we were to try to enumerate those who work to provide the dye for the wool, we would have to follow chemists into their laboratories and traders to the remote corners of the world. The circle becomes indefinitely large, including vast numbers of people. We have become lost although we have not yet enumerated those who produce the cloth. No mention so far has been made of the men who market the cloth, or those who design the garment, or those who tailor the goods, or those who superintend the factory, or those who have taught the workers the elements of their tasks, or of those who serve all by keeping order and administering justice. For the policeman who prevents theft is as much a producer of the finished garment as those who work directly upon it. In some way or other every person who performs useful labor in some way contributes to the woolen coat.

From this brief study we see that we are all co-workers in the great tasks of feeding, clothing, teaching, inspiring, and amusing the world. The more highly developed the kind of work we do, the more tools we need, and the more dependent are we upon others. Every new invention we use, every new

author we read, every new experience we enjoy, serves to bind us more closely to this wonderful coöperative system in which we live.

1. In what ways does your teacher help to produce food and clothing for all?
2. In what ways does a physician help to produce food?
3. Make a list of the things on your breakfast table this morning. How many of them did you assist in producing?
4. What does "interdependence" mean? (Use your dictionary.) How do the things on your breakfast table illustrate interdependence?
5. Why is our industrial system a part of our community life?

5. Our political groups help us to coöperate.

The principal political groups to which we belong are our township, our county, our city, our state, and our nation.

Within each one of these divisions we work together for definite purposes. Our local governments, for example, help us to secure educational advantages, to protect life and property against crime, fire, and disease, to construct and pave highways, and to carry on such other tasks as private individuals cannot perform



LAKE WASHINGTON CANAL

The locks of this canal are second only to those at Panama. The canal was built through the coöperation of four communities: the city of Seattle, King County, the State of Washington, and the United States. (*Courtesy of Seattle Chamber of Commerce.*)

at all or cannot perform as satisfactorily. All these local governments derive their existence from the state government, and our state governments are subject to the control of our national government. Thus our local, state, and national governments are the means which bring larger and larger groups of people into active coöperation. At this time we

cannot stop to study in detail the purposes of these three types of government nor the means by which they secure our cooperation. It will be sufficient now to consider our membership in these political communities and to remember that our democratic government extends its protecting arm over our home, our neighborhood, our school, our church, our clubs, and our societies.

1. Government performs those tasks which private individuals cannot perform at all or cannot perform as satisfactorily.

Explain this statement.

2. How does your local government protect your home? Why does not each family hire a private detective?



Courtesy of Laval Company

A CHINESE NATIVE COSTUME

6. Communities control their members.

(a) *By custom.* Every child is born into a family many of whose habits are already formed. The American child sees his father and mother eating their food with knife, fork, and spoon, while the Chinese child sees his father and mother eating with chopsticks,

and the Arab child sees his parents eating with their fingers. From infancy we Americans see our mothers and older sisters wearing blouses and skirts, while Chinese and Japanese children see their mothers wearing distinctive native costumes. If an American child were so headstrong as to insist on eating with chopsticks or wearing a Chinese costume in public, he would

be severely disciplined by his parents and shunned by his playmates.

The early years of a child's life are thus occupied in learning the accepted customs of the groups in which he finds himself. Everybody seems determined to teach him something he must do in some particular way. He is told that he must not wear overalls to church on Sunday, that he must pay for the apples he takes from the grocer's barrel, and that he must maintain silence at the concert while the musicians are playing. On a thousand occasions he asks why he must act in a particular way, and he is told that people will not like him if he does not behave in the manner prescribed. Years later he realizes that customs are group habits which help us to understand one another easily and quickly, and in this way enable us to live together harmoniously.

1. Make a list of the special occasions observed in your family. In what ways is your list different from a list your chum would make? In what ways is it different from a similar list made by a boy in another state? In Canada? In Japan?
2. Why do we think that newly arrived immigrants are queer?

(b) *By public opinion.* Public opinion is one of the most powerful factors in controlling our actions. Perhaps the sheriff has been killed in the performance of his duty, or a flood has wiped out part of our city, or an election of public officials is approaching. At first many people express their opinions. Gradually there develops a collective opinion which controls our actions. This controlling opinion is called public opinion. It is not public in the sense that it is the uniform or even the most general opinion in the group, but rather in the sense that it is so organized as to control the public.

Much of this formulation of public opinion takes place in local discussion centers like the headquarters of a political party, or a favored drugstore, or a barber shop. In some communities open forums are conducted for the discussion of public questions. During recent presidential campaigns

many special meetings have been held in churches and public halls to discuss the issues openly. But in our large, complex groups we must rely to some extent upon the newspaper and the news magazine for the formation and guidance of public opinion. Just how one individual can guide the thinking of many thousands of citizens we shall see later in our study of the newspaper. However, no thoughtful citizen should put his entire reliance upon any newspaper, but should make every effort to enter into face-to-face discussions with his neighborhood group. The open forum seems to be the best means yet devised for enabling the general public to take an active part in controlling changes in our institutions and customs.

1. What is an open forum? Is there one in your neighborhood? Do you know any people who attend its meetings?
2. Does public opinion play any part in the control of your school? If so, how is it formed? Do you take any part in its formation?
3. What is propaganda? (Use your dictionary.) Give examples to show its purpose.

(c) *By law.* The function of law is to protect the interests of the entire community against the actions of individuals or groups of individuals who might otherwise interfere with the welfare of the community. For example, most of us believe it is wrong to drive our automobiles at such speed as to endanger our own lives or the lives of other automobilists and of pedestrians. But some of us think that thirty miles an hour is not too fast for safety, while others think that fifteen miles an hour should be the speed limit. When the city council or the state legislature passes a law and posts signs giving speed for different districts, the question is settled. It is then our duty to obey the law. By obedience to the law we show our willingness to cooperate for the safety of all; by disobedience we advertise our poor citizenship, and also lay ourselves open to arrest and fine or imprisonment. As soon as public opinion is enacted into law we have no choice, for we must obey the law as long as it is on the statute books. As good citizens,

we have a right to work for a change in our laws; but we never have the right to disregard them, for if all of us disregard our laws, our liberty will not be increased, but will be entirely lost.



MAKING SUICIDE HARD

The Northwestern Railroad has installed this type of warning sign in Nebraska and Wisconsin. Its purpose is to compel speeding drivers to turn out for the sign and to make it impossible for them to pass without seeing the warning. Signal engineers think that this type of crossing sign will almost eliminate accidents at railroad crossings. (*Copy-right, Underwood & Underwood.*)

1. Why does disregard for law decrease liberty?
2. Law forces the careless and thoughtless members of the group to respect the rights of others. Do you agree? Illustrate.
3. What do you think of a traffic policeman who permits his friends to disobey the law? Why?

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Tufts, *The Real Business of Living*. (Holt.)
Chap. III — "First Coöperation — The Clan and its Customs."
2. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
Lesson A-2 — "The Western Pioneer." The lesson shows what kinds

of wants men have and why community life is necessary for their satisfaction.

Lesson A-16 — "Caste in India." It is a fine study showing how the smallest details of group life can be controlled by custom.

Lesson A-17 — "American Mining Law." The aim is to show how laws are derived from customs.

Lesson B-17 — "The Development of a System of Laws."

3. Dunn, *Community Civics and Rural Life*. (Heath.) *Community Civics for City Schools*. (Heath.)

Chap. I — "Our Common Purposes in Community Life."

Chap. II — "How We Depend upon One Another in Community Life."

Chap. III — "The Need for Coöperation in Community Life."

Chap. IV — "Why We Have Government."

These four introductory chapters in the two Dunn books contain much illustrative material on coöperation and on the common purposes in community life.

4. Hill, *Community Life and Civic Problems*. (Ginn.)

Chap. I — "Myself and Others."

5. Hughes, *Elementary Community Civics*. (Allyn & Bacon.)

Chap. I — "The Citizen in the Community."

6. Reed, *Loyal Citizenship*. (World Book Co.)

Chap. II — "From Family to Nation."

Chap. III — "Coöperation in Work."

7. Knowles, *Alone in the Wilderness*. (Small, Maynard & Co.)

The book recounts a series of interesting adventures of a man who lived alone in the wilderness of the Maine woods for two months during which he fashioned his clothing from the skins of wild animals, procured his daily food in the forest, and made his own implements. It is an enjoyable account of a man's efforts to be independent of others.

8. Ussher and Knapp, *An American Physician in Turkey*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

Chap. II — "A Year in Harput."

Chap. III — "Scene-Shifting."

Chap. VI — "My Hospital."

The book is a narrative of adventures in peace and war. In the three chapters here cited are mentioned and explained many Turkish customs, habits, laws, and ideas different from our own.

9. Meldrum, *Holland and the Hollanders*. (Dodd, Mead & Co.)

The book contains about one hundred good reproductions of paintings and drawings illustrative of Dutch life. Every pupil will gain much knowledge of Dutch customs if he spends an hour looking at these pictures.

10. Melland and Cholmeley, *Through the Heart of Africa*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

The book is a vivid account of a journey on bicycles and on foot through the heart of Africa. Every page illustrates the dependence of civilized people upon others for their daily necessities.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Cooley, *Human Nature and the Social Order*. (Scribner's.)
Chap. VIII — "Emulation."
Cooley discusses conformity and non-conformity as complementary phases of life.
2. Thomas, *Source Book for Social Origins*. (University of Chicago Press.)
Pages 13-22.
These pages contain a splendid discussion of the nature of progress.
3. Ross, *Social Psychology*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. XVIII — "Discussion."

CHAPTER IV

EDUCATION IN THE COMMUNITY

THUS far our study has given us a glimpse of our life together. We have seen that a large part of our actions is controlled by customs, institutions, and ideals which have been handed down from generation to generation. We know we are the descendants of a long line of ancestors who have spent their lives working and thinking. In our institutions, our literature, our history, our art, architecture, and science, we are bequeathed the rich heritage of their experience. In order that part of this wonderful heritage may become the property of an increasing number of our boys and girls we send them to school. What our schools are trying to do is to make the path to accumulated wisdom shorter and easier, to make life richer and happier, and to develop useful citizens.

Problems for you to investigate

OUR PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

I. Our district.

- A. With the assistance of your teacher and the principal of your school get a map of your school district. If there is no such map available, get a map of your county either through the Board of Election Commissioners or through the County Superintendent of Schools at your County Courthouse.

Find out the boundaries of your district and mark carefully.

From this map make enlarged copies of your own district for your own use.

On your map locate:

1. The elementary schools and their districts.
2. The junior high schools and their districts.
3. The high school.
4. Special schools.

- B. Who are the members of your local board of education? How were they chosen? Do they receive any pay for their services? How long do they hold office? What are their duties? (If you are not able to obtain this information from your parents or neighbors, you can readily obtain it from official sources. Names of present members are in the roster of state, county, and local officials. Their duties and responsibilities are described in the school law of your state, and also in the charter of your city.)
- C. From the annual report of the superintendent of schools of your district find out:
1. What is the cost of running your school system for one year?
 2. What part of this expense is met by the county? By the district? By the state?
 3. What is the number of children in attendance?
 4. What does it cost the public to keep you in school for one year?

II. Our county.

Information on the following questions may be obtained by consulting the constitution of your state, or the digest of school law prepared by your State Superintendent of Public Instruction, or annual reports of your State Superintendent.

- A. Is there a county superintendent of schools in your county? If so, who is he? How was he selected? How long is his term of office? What are his duties?
- B. Is there a county board of education in your county? If so, who are the members? How were they selected? What work are they doing?
- C. In what ways does your district coöperate with other districts in your county?

III. Our state.

- A. From the same sources as those indicated above, find out and locate on a map of your state:
 1. State University, if any.
 2. State agricultural colleges.
 3. State normal schools.
 4. State schools for the deaf, blind, incorrigible, etc.

B. Who is your State Superintendent of Public Instruction or State Commissioner of Education? Answer same questions as in II, A.

C. Who are the members of your state board of education? Answer same questions as in II, B.

IV. Our nation.

A. By far the greatest part of the educational work of our national government is carried on through the Bureau of Education in the Department of the Interior. From the most recent copy of the Congressional Directory find out:

1. Who is the present Commissioner of Education? Who are his chief assistants?

2. In the section marked Official Duties you will find a brief statement of the aims of the Bureau. What are they?

B. From recent reports of the Commissioner find out how the aims outlined in the Congressional Directory are being realized.

C. The Federal Board for Vocational Education is engaged in promoting a special phase of education. From the Congressional Directory find out who are the members of the Board, and from its reports find out what are its aims and what means it is employing to realize them.

V. Education week.

A. Numerous suggestions for assembly programs may be obtained through your local librarian or directly through the United States Bureau of Education. Appoint a committee to investigate.

B. Posters showing the value of education and the special aims of your school should be constructed and placed on conspicuous bulletin boards in your local public library, your post-office, or other suitable places. Appoint committees to plan, execute, and locate your posters.

1. Few families are able to provide a complete education for their own children.

When we were studying the family we discovered that it is in this group that the child learns his first language lessons,

formulates his first ideas of life and living, and develops habits conducive to good citizenship. Thus the family is able to lay a broad and solid foundation. Further than this few families can go, for most mothers are busy with their housework, and most fathers must devote their energies to earning a living. Also, many parents are eager to give their children a better education than they themselves were able to obtain. Other parents have good educations, but they do not have the materials, time or perhaps the ability to impart knowledge and develop the habits, ideals, and powers which are the aims of modern education. For these reasons they prefer to coöperate with other families and to provide schools and trained teachers for their children.

1. Make a list of all the things you know how to do. How many did you learn at school?
2. Many parents who can afford to hire private tutors prefer to send their children to public schools. Do you see why?

2. The school is the community's most vital interest.

The people of our nation have already invested about two billion dollars in buildings and sites for public schools, and they are spending annually over one thousand million dollars for their maintenance. Every year sees many communities engaged in campaign-



DOUGLAS SCHOOL IN SALT LAKE CITY

Many elementary schools of this architectural design are being erected in many parts of America. Notice the young trees, the lawn, and the shrubbery. (Courtesy of Salt Lake City Chamber of Commerce.)

ing for bond issues for new sites and buildings. So fast is the rate of increase in funds invested in this way that interested educators have difficulty in keeping their knowledge up-to-date.

From Maine to California, and from Florida to Washington, our people are spending increasing sums on school buildings, school equipment, and salaries for teachers.

In addition to these great expenditures there are other signs of community interest and action. New laws are increasing the length of the school term. Compulsory attendance regulations are placing increasing numbers of boys and girls in school. Several states have raised the age at which a pupil may leave school from fourteen or fifteen to eighteen. Our state legislatures and our national Congress are appropriating special funds for new and special courses. Farmers and all other classes of business and professional men are calling on the schools for trained workers in their various lines. The nation is also depending upon the schools to supply trained leaders in our political and industrial life. Upon the school the community is laying the work of initiating the child into the duties and responsibilities of citizenship in our democracy. Thus it is small wonder that the school is attracting an unprecedented amount of interest expressed in increased moral and financial support.

1. At what age are children in your state permitted to leave school? Do most children leave at this age? Why, or why not? Why have some of your friends left school?
2. What is the minimum number of days during which the schools of your state must be open? What is the length of the term in your district? Account for the difference.
3. Have there been any recent bond issues in your district? If so, for what purposes is the money being spent?

3. Our present school system is the result of generations of effort.

Within twenty-five years after the first settlement was established in Massachusetts, the law-making body of the colony passed a law which provided for a school in every settlement of fifty or more families. Reading and writing were the principal subjects taught. By 1650, a number of

such elementary schools were in existence. Expenses were met partly by taxation, partly by tuition, as the people in the various districts might decide. The Latin Grammar School at Boston was founded in 1634, and Harvard College in 1636. Thus it was possible for a boy in Massachusetts to obtain elementary, secondary, and college training in his own colony. These Massachusetts institutions were copied in varying degree by the middle and southern colonies.

This early interest in education persisted amid the hardships of the Revolution. In 1787, when Congress was providing for the government of the Northwest Territory, now the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, a clause was inserted in the Ordinance which provided that one square mile of every township should be set aside for the maintenance of public schools within the township. By this measure, known as the Ordinance of 1787, our national government showed its interest in education and its right to encourage public schools. There was thus an early recognition of the fact that democratic government needs intelligent citizens and that intelligent citizens can best be trained in public schools.

During the forty years following this famous Ordinance, the condition of the country changed rapidly for two reasons. First, many families moved from their old homes in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and New York to the new West. Second, spinning, weaving, and similar tasks were being largely removed from the homes of the people to huge factories where a great part of the work was done by machin-



A YOUNG COTTON PICKER

This nine-year-old Oklahoma girl picks seventy-five to one hundred pounds of cotton a day, working from six in the morning to six or seven in the evening with an hour and one half rest at noon. Compulsory school attendance laws would give this child a chance to attend school. (Courtesy of the National Child Labor Committee.)

ery. As there were no compulsory school attendance laws and no public opinion in favor of such regulations, children toiled in the mills many hours in the day. Because of this removal of many families to the frontier and because of the widespread employment of children in factories and on farms, school attendance declined, and the country faced a grave danger.

In this emergency De Witt Clinton, as governor of New York, urged the state legislature to encourage education by authorizing financial support of public schools. Thaddeus Stevens did similar work before the Pennsylvania legislature.



A TOBACCO FIELD IN KENTUCKY

These girls have been to school only a few months in their lives. Their local community is still thinking of the burden of education. (Courtesy of the National Child Labor Committee.)

But Massachusetts led the way in the widespread movement by establishing the first real state board of education in the United States. After 1837, Horace Mann, as the secretary of this board, labored in season and out of season for the cause of popular education at public expense. People contended that free edu-

cation was not necessary, or even possible. They thought of the burden of education without considering its returns to the community in the increased abilities and happiness of its members. Largely through the work of such men as Horace Mann in Massachusetts and Caleb Mills in Indiana and their little groups of followers, public opinion throughout the United States became favorable to public schools.

In 1848, the national government again showed its interest in education. Congress passed a law by which new states were to reserve *two* sections of every township for school purposes. This law, which resulted from widespread public

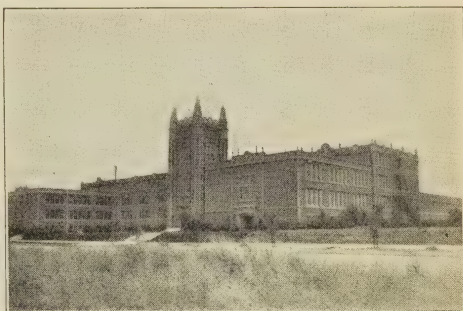
opinion, was an extension of Jefferson's idea as expressed in the Ordinance of 1787. Through the financial returns from this land the pioneer West was given an opportunity of developing splendid systems of free schools.

After people admitted that public support of elementary schools was for the good of all, it was not long before the leaders in education were asking for public support of secondary, or high schools. There were not many high schools in America until the era of prosperity which followed the recon-

struction period after the Civil War. Almost everywhere the right to tax the people for this purpose was fought out in the state legislatures or before the people during a campaign. Defeat before the people did not usually discourage the antagonists of education. They carried their case to the courts. During

the seventies and eighties this question was fought out in nearly every growing community west of the Appalachians.

Since 1900 a profound change has been taking place in our work of public instruction. The schools have undertaken to supply some of the training which former generations received in the home and in the workshop. This has been necessary because the rapid changes in our industrial system are removing more and more tasks from the home, and are making it impossible for offices and factories to train workers in the old thorough way. Other changes have been introduced to help the children of millions of immigrants to learn our language, our customs, and our ideals. Then, too, many problems are



LOS ANGELES HIGH SCHOOL IN THE WILSHIRE DISTRICT

This building is one of the recent additions to the Los Angeles school system. Over twenty-eight hundred pupils are enrolled. Many communities are erecting schools of this design. (Courtesy of Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce.)

constantly arising as our country becomes more thickly settled, as the population of our cities increases, and as the standard of living advances. We are compelled to learn to live together under these difficult new conditions. Because progressive Americans have come to believe that the success of our nation depends upon the proper development of our public schools, our communities are entrusting larger numbers of their problems to the schools. What the schools are now doing to justify this trust we shall see in the following sections.

1. Is there a compulsory school attendance law in your state? When was it passed? How does it affect you? What right has the state to pass such a law?
2. What famous educators have helped to build the school system in your state? In your town or city?
3. When was your high school built? Was there any opposition at the time in the community? Do all the people in your community believe in high schools now? What is the attitude toward education in your community? How is it shown?

4. Public schools train their pupils in democracy.

The school is a community with its own organization, its own laws and customs, its own rights and responsibilities. Most schools, especially junior and senior high schools, have worked out a system of student participation in school management which is an outgrowth of the school's needs. The student body has certain definite work to do: it conducts its own elections; it manages its own publications; it takes charge of general assemblies; it coöperates with the teachers to stimulate and control athletics and social life; it helps to emphasize the necessity of high standards of scholarship; it assists the formulation of public opinion by means of campaigns for school improvement. Through these activities pupils learn the responsibility of each citizen elected to office for the honest and faithful administration of his official duties. They also learn to cast their ballots for the candidates best fitted to hold office, to develop wholesome regard for law and order under

all conditions, and to appreciate the value of coöperative effort. Pupils come to see that their liberty is controlled by law in the interest of the whole group. This experience in the school community is the foundation of good citizenship in the neighborhood, the city, the state, and the nation.



SCHOOL GARDEN IN LOS ANGELES

Work like gardening develops good health and democratic ideals.
(Courtesy of *Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce.*)

Of far greater importance than this training in community affairs is the give-and-take of school life. Children of many nationalities, of all degrees of social standing, of varied habits of life, all attend the same classes. There they are being moulded into American citizens by daily instruction and association. All have the same opportunities to win advancement. All are equal at all times before the laws of the school. Effort and ability are the things that count. It is exactly this ideal of democracy for which all enlightened communities are

working. Neither wealth, nor birth, nor social position, nor nationality, nor beauty is an adequate substitute for work, ability, and conformity to the established rules of the school. If the larger communities ever succeed in achieving an ideal democracy, it will be largely through the work of the public schools.

1. Do the pupils in your school have any part in its management? If so, what form does it take? Who drew up your constitution? Are you eligible to hold office? Why? What are you doing to assist your officers to obtain good government?

5. The schools are developing character.

All of our democratic institutions are founded upon the character of the individual citizen. For example, if the city voter is negligent in his civic duties, he has no right to complain about high taxes, and if the workman performs as little work as possible for the highest possible wages, he has no right to complain about high prices. But such complaints are constantly made because people lack a sense of responsibility. Our schools are training in responsibility by insisting on punctuality, and on thorough and honest effort as well as by encouraging participation in many kinds of student activities. In athletics are developed courage, the spirit of fair play, the ability to act quickly and wisely, the habit of coöperation for the good of one's team rather than for individual glory, and practice in working according to rules. All these qualities may be carried over from the school into our larger communities. In the classroom, laboratory, shop, on the athletic field, and in all other school activities the students learn to enjoy and to value productive work; they realize the necessity for honesty; they appreciate the worth of free speech and of individual initiative; they learn to select and to follow the line of action which will bring the most satisfactory results. All these qualities then become part of the character of the pupils and help to develop good citizens. If our schools

actually serve their purpose, our government will be strengthened by intelligent, loyal, energetic, resourceful, and law-abiding people.

1. How does punctuality at classes develop your character? Is there any connection between punctuality and effective work? Why?
2. Are you a member of a team? If so, show how particular incidents have changed your ideas on coöperation and fair play.

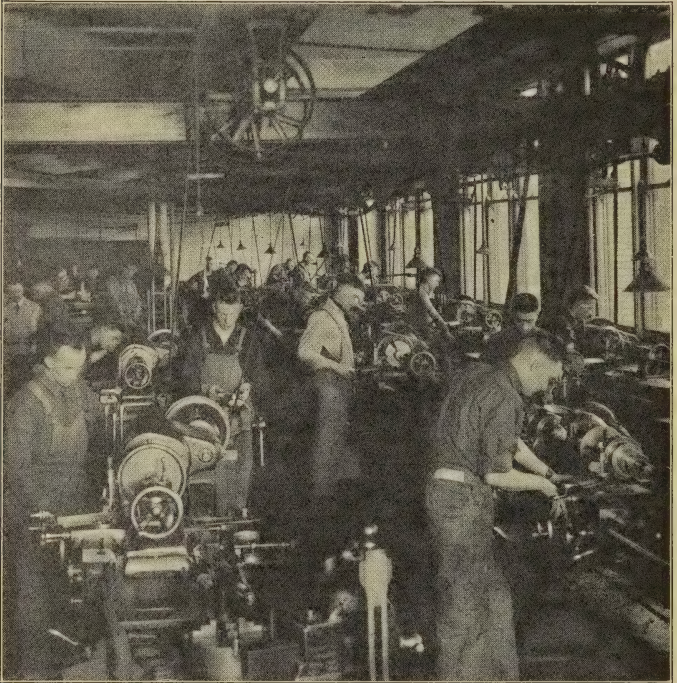
6. The schools are giving vocational training.

To a very large extent the schools have always given vocational training. Our earliest schools trained ministers, and later ones trained lawyers and doctors. More recently schools have begun to train authors and journalists. Many of the so-called cultural studies are a direct preparation for earning a living in one of these professions. That such studies do not have any close connection with industry is no sign that they are not vocational.

Before industry reached its present complex state, the schools taught the subjects that industry needed. A carpenter could train an apprentice in the mysteries of woodwork; but he needed to send the boy to school for reading, writing, and arithmetic. In school the boy learned what he could not learn outside. At the end of his time as apprentice he knew all the processes connected with his trade. The school gave him only a small part of his training; but it did all that it was required to do toward adjusting the boy to the conditions of life in his group.

Now industry is very complicated. A man may spend day after day in turning out small pieces of parts of an article without ever having a chance to learn how they fit into the whole. In clothing factories, for example, many people work on a single garment, most of whom never see the connection of their particular task with the finished garment. The scope of industry has been greatly enlarged; educational

opportunities have multiplied; but the great masses of people know far less about their work than they did in the days when everything was made by hand and marketed in the vicinity. Thus the burden of teaching people the connection between their work and the work of others is being thrown upon the schools.



Courtesy of F. L. Morse

THE MACHINE SHOP AT HARRISON TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO

Few people wish to make our schools mere adjuncts to the office and factory, but every one wishes to give boys and girls well-rounded development so that they may go from school into profitable work without any loss of time or effort. For example, in the millinery class the girl learns whether or not

she is fitted to be a milliner. At the same time she is studying other subjects which will contribute to any work she may choose. If she gets knowledge about various occupations while in school she knows what to do after she leaves. Whether or not she takes employment in industry as a life work does not matter. Every time she buys a hat she is able to use her training in millinery to advantage. The same may be said of boys in their shops. The schools do not expect every boy who takes a course in the machine shop to be a machinist. Through this kind of instruction the school is trying to make the pupil's school life more active, more full of meaning, and better connected with out-of-school experience. In other words, the school is giving the pupil what he is not able to get outside, namely, insight into his own capabilities as well as into the intricate processes of industry.

1. Does an uneducated boy to-day stand as excellent a chance of success as an uneducated boy fifty years ago? Why?
2. Is there a bureau of vocational guidance in your school? Has it helped you? Do you consider its work worth while? Why?
3. Have you any idea of the kind of work you will do when you leave school? If so, have you selected any of your present subjects with the idea of your life work in mind? How are these subjects assisting you in your chosen line?
4. Do you know of any occupation in which education is a hindrance? If so, what?

7. Special schools have been organized for special groups.

Our democratic ideal of equal opportunity for all has found expression in the development of special schools for those unable to profit from the regular school work. Such pupils are the blind, the deaf and dumb, the tubercular, the backward, the incorrigible, and the truant. All these can be given training fitted to their needs. Of course this training is very expensive because classes must be small, and extra equipment must be provided. But the expenditure is abundantly worth while since it makes independent those who would otherwise

be lifelong burdens to the community, and it brings happiness to those who might otherwise become harmful to the whole



A JUVENILE DETENTION HOME

In attendance at this school are those boys and girls who have become wards of the Juvenile Court because of truancy or incorrigibility.

group. In most large cities there are all these kinds of schools. Smaller cities and rural districts usually send their children who need this kind of instruction to the special schools maintained by the county or by the state. The ideal is to give to every boy and girl a chance to develop the best that is in him for his own good and for the good of the community.

1. What special educational institutions are there in your neighborhood? In your state? Have you ever visited any of them? If so, what did you learn?
2. Do you know any pupils in special schools? How do they like their work? In what respects does their work differ from yours?

8. The schools are providing opportunities for adults.

In nearly every city of any size and in some rural districts there are afternoon classes and night schools for adults. Here fathers and mothers are learning the things which they had no opportunity to learn as young people. High school graduates are qualifying themselves to meet college entrance requirements. Immigrants from many countries are learning to speak English, and applicants for citizenship are studying the principles of our government. In the shops friends and neighbors are shown how to make furniture and to repair automobiles. The night school is of special help to those

parents who wish to get in touch with the new ideals in education as well as to those who are taking their first opportunity to acquire knowledge. Also, the increased cost of living has induced many women to learn to make their own hats and dresses and to cook more economical and more nutritious food for their families. Thus those people who are employed during all or during the greater part of the day are given the opportunity to continue their education along the line which will help them most.



Courtesy of F. L. Morse

EVENING SCHOOL CLASS IN DRESSMAKING AT HARRISON TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO

In many places the social center idea is doing much to arouse interest in local problems. The activities include lectures on topics vital to human welfare, entertainments, dramatics, social dancing, parties, and banquets. Most important of all these activities is the forum, or class for civic discussion, where any citizen may express his ideas on the administration of public affairs. Through such discussion there is developed a healthy public opinion of very far-reaching influence. The social center also extends the work of the school into the home and broadens the idea of education by leading people to see it as a lifelong process.

1. Is there a night school in your neighborhood? What courses does it offer? What classes of people is it reaching? Do any members of your family attend?
2. In what other ways is your school helping the adults in your community to obtain knowledge? To use their leisure wisely? To become better citizens?

9. Good teachers perform valuable service for their pupils.

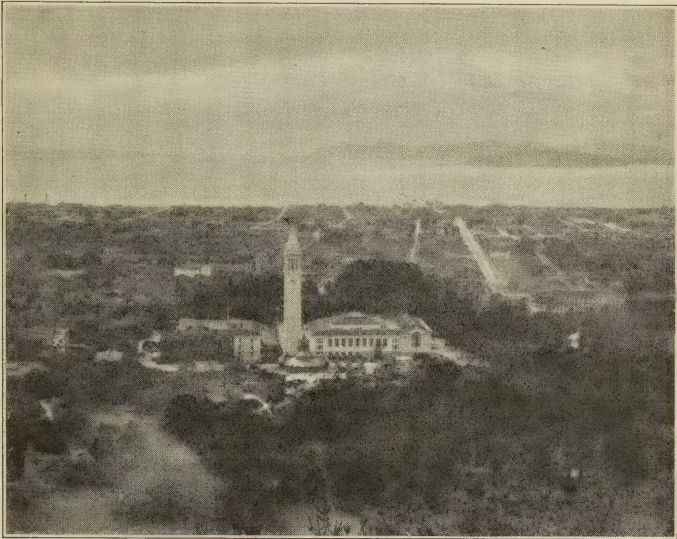
Next to a child's parents his teachers exercise the greatest influence over his thoughts and actions in the early years of his life. By their enthusiasm for study they inspire him to love learning. By their sincere interest in his personal problems and by their knowledge of current needs they assist him to find his place in the world. Their sympathetic attitude and wise suggestions help him to develop his capacities to the utmost extent. Their devotion to their work teaches him that a suitable occupation brings not only a living but also a life that is worth living, for the successful teacher finds the day's work as appealing and as stimulating as is a football game to the high-school boy.

1. Have you ever thought of being a teacher? What requirements must a teacher meet in order to teach in your school? In other schools near you? In your state?
2. Make a list of the personal traits of the teachers who have done most for you. Are all these traits essential to a good teacher? Do you think your personal traits are such that you would be a good teacher? Why?

10. Our schools are supported by district, county, state, and national funds.

A century ago when communication between the people of the scattered settlements was difficult, it was natural for a neighborhood to establish a school district for the benefit of its own children with little regard for educational practice in the rest of the state. Such schools suited the immediate needs of the people. Districts could be organized wherever and as soon as the residents felt able to support a school. Under

this system large districts were divided into smaller units for the greater convenience of the pupils. Each district felt itself the dictator of the school's policy and hence qualified to select teachers, to adopt a course of study, to determine the length of the term, to fix the tax rate, and even to select and supervise the boarding places of the teachers. The district felt itself qualified to perform all these functions in the



THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA AT BERKELEY

Over twelve thousand students are in attendance at this state university. The funds for their education are appropriated by the legislature. (*Courtesy of San Francisco Chamber of Commerce.*)

manner best suited to its particular needs. In many states the district still has very extensive powers. The chief argument for its continuance is that it educates the people in civic spirit by making them responsible for the conduct of their schools.

By a very slow process the states have come to exercise authority over the schools. At first they made funds available, and then they stated the conditions under which these

funds could be secured. The states with large land reserves were especially equipped to exercise control over the districts. By this control courses of study have been made uniform for whole states, many state universities have been established, and the qualifications of teachers have been raised. The state secures its funds by the taxation of corporations, inheritances, etc., and by the rental and sale of public lands, and it distrib-



THE STATE UNIVERSITY OF UTAH

Nearly every state in the Union now has a progressive state university to which all the residents of the state may send their children. These schools are usually supported by direct appropriations of state money by the state legislature. (*Courtesy of Salt Lake City Chamber of Commerce.*)

utes them to the districts in allotments determined by the number of children in attendance at the schools of each district. By this aid all the districts are able to raise their standards. In some states, the county, as the local administrator of the state, levies taxes on real estate. These county funds for school purposes are distributed to the districts in the same way as the state funds. Here is a second means by which all dis-

districts are enabled to reach high standards. Nearly everywhere people see that every child has a right to the best education that can be given him, no matter whether his district is able to meet the full cost or not.

Revenues for the schools of a typical city of sixty thousand people for a recent year were estimated as follows:

1. Fund for kindergartens from district only.....	\$41,330
2. Funds for the elementary schools.	
From the county.....	\$211,210
From the district.....	191,534
From the state.....	215,467
3. Funds for the high schools.	
From the county.....	\$216,863
From the district.....	307,605
From the state.....	49,427
Total funds.....	\$1,233,436

Enrollment in the kindergarten and elementary schools of this city was approximately 10,800 pupils, and in the high



A PUBLIC PLAYGROUND

State aid to schools has made it possible for many districts to equip playgrounds in connection with their schools.

schools approximately 2400, so that about 13,200 boys and girls were benefited by this expenditure. Based upon average daily attendance the cost per pupil in the kindergarten and

elementary schools was about seventy dollars per year, and in the high schools it was about two hundred and fifty dollars per year.

In addition to these three sources of revenue, a fourth is gradually becoming more important, namely, aid from the federal government at Washington. The federal government had long encouraged the states to set aside lands for the support of public education, but it had never made any direct contribution to the local bodies until 1917, when the Smith-Hughes Bill was enacted into law. This law embodies the recommendations of the National Commission on Vocational Education which conducted careful investigations for a period of fifteen years. It makes available millions of dollars for the advancement of education along agricultural, industrial, trade, and home economics lines, and also for the training of teachers of these subjects. When a state desires to introduce or extend instruction in these fields, it must appropriate one half of the funds required. The other half it secures from the federal government under the Smith-Hughes Law.

As soon as the federal government began to supply funds for education, it became evident in the minds of many of our leading educators that there ought to be a national system of schools with a Secretary of Education as a member of the President's Cabinet. In 1918 the Smith-Towner Bill was introduced into the Sixty-Sixth Congress to provide further aid and to create the new Cabinet position; but it did not come to a vote. At the opening of the special session of the Sixty-Seventh Congress in 1921, the bill was again introduced in a slightly modified form and was known as the Towner-Sterling Bill. Even though it has not yet been enacted into law, there is every reason to believe that America will soon put education on the same plane as commerce, labor, agriculture, and war. We are the only great nation which has neglected to give education this deserved recognition.

1. What revenues does your school district receive? Are these revenues adequate? How could they be increased?

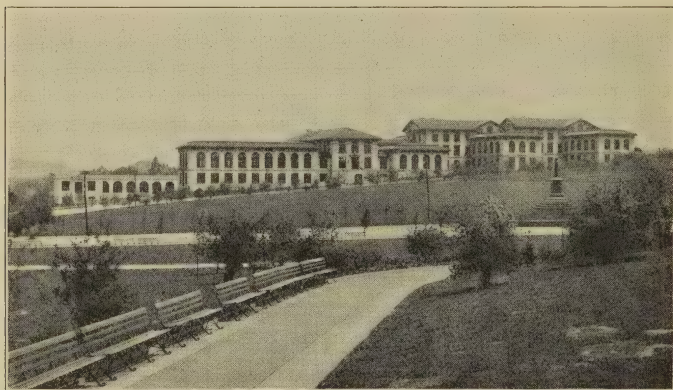
2. Why does high school education cost so much more than elementary school education? Does this additional cost put any responsibility upon the high school pupil? Why has the community a right to expect more from a high school graduate than from an elementary school graduate?
3. Does your school system receive any funds from the national government? If not, why not? If so, how does it use these funds?
4. Why is the national government interested in your education? How and why is its interest different from that of the district and state?
5. What did the World War show us in regard to our educational system?

11. We support many private institutions for education.

As we saw in our study of the history of public schools, most of our early schools were supported wholly or in part by tuition fees. Now private schools are not nearly so important as they used to be. Some churches, like the Roman Catholic and Lutheran, support numerous parochial schools where the children receive daily instruction in the principles of their religion as well as in the subjects taught in the public schools. Many churches have also established colleges and academies. In fact, many of our oldest colleges originally had as their chief task the training of ministers.

In addition to these church schools there are others carried on as business enterprises. Such are the numerous military academies for boys, the finishing schools for girls, the business "colleges," schools of music, oratory, dancing, and the like. They exist to supply needs which some people feel the public schools do not and ought not supply. Then there are the correspondence schools, which teach people by mail. They range in quality from the schools which purport to teach success in twenty lessons (!) to our great universities. A good correspondence school gives courses in such subjects as English composition and literature, mathematics, history, and economics. Also, many of our largest colleges and universities

are offering extension courses, that is, regular college courses given in such places and at such times as to accommodate business and professional people. These correspondence and



CARNEGIE INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, PITTSBURGH

This great school is the gift of Andrew Carnegie to the people of Pittsburgh.

extension courses are a boon to thousands of Americans whose position and affairs prevent regular attendance at classes in a college.

1. Some private schools are conducted in German, Polish, Lithuanian, and other foreign languages. Do the pupils in these schools secure an adequate preparation for American citizenship? Why?
2. What subjects are usually taught in business "colleges"? Under what conditions do you think it is wise to leave a public school and to enter a business "college"?
3. Have any of your relatives or friends ever taken work in a correspondence school? If so, try to find out how this work has assisted them.

12. Our libraries fill many of our needs.

One of the greatest opportunities to secure profit and pleasure within the reach of the ordinary person is the public library.

Our best libraries make an effort to provide a book for every reader whether he is a university graduate or a pupil in a primary school. On the shelves of the library you can find books and magazines which will make your school work more interesting. For your mother there are books on the care of the household and the feeding of the family. For your teachers there are recent books on education. If your father is a lawyer, a physician, an architect, an accountant, a sales-



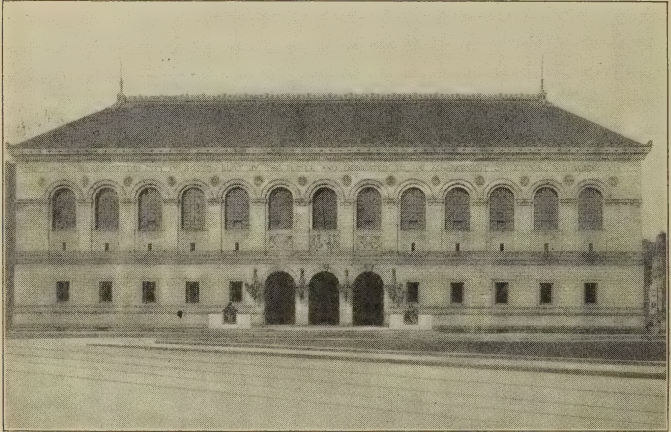
Courtesy of Laval Company

CHILDREN'S ROOM IN THE PITTSBURGH PUBLIC LIBRARY

man, a journalist, a printer, a preacher, an educator, or an insurance agent, he will find the library eager to subscribe for the magazines he likes to read and ready to purchase many books which he needs in his work. Thus the library aims to make all of us more efficient workers.

A second contribution of the library is to serve as a source of pleasure in our leisure time. If we develop a taste for good literature and if we cultivate good reading habits, we shall discover that books are our best friends. From them we can

glean the experiences, feelings, and ideas of men since the dawn of history. We can use and enjoy them in childhood, youth, maturity, and old age. We can take them with us as companions on long journeys into distant lands. In the tedious days of illness they comfort us. When we are troubled or worried they ease our minds. If we have cultivated a love of good books we need never be lonely.

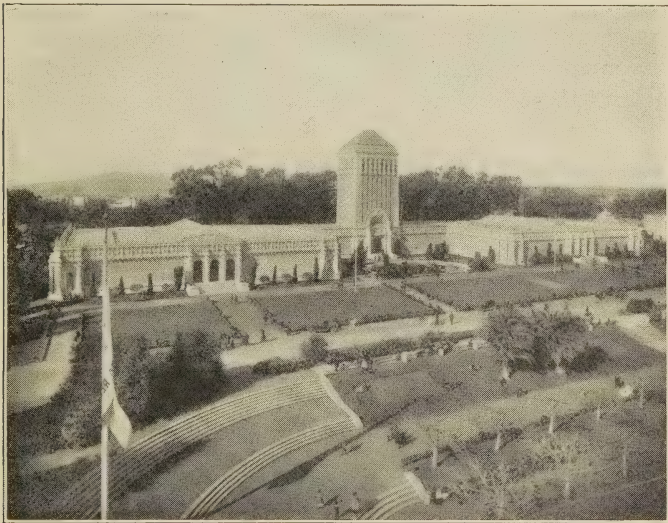


BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY

There are twenty-eight branch libraries and reading rooms. The Library gives free lecture courses with special regard to the æsthetic development of cities, and coöperates with the colleges in their University Extension Courses, and with the schools, loaning pictures, as well as books, to teachers for use in their work.

In order that these human needs may be satisfied abundantly we have libraries. Frequently public-spirited citizens build and endow libraries for their community. In cities and towns the people usually pay a special tax for library maintenance. Some states have worked out a plan whereby one great central library is established from which the libraries in the counties may obtain books. Then the county libraries set up branches in all the towns or rural communities which apply for them. Thus all the public libraries of the state are in one great system.

- i. Appoint a committee of your class to interview the librarian at the nearest public library. Perhaps she will be willing to speak to your class. If not, try to find out from her and from reports she will give you:
 - a. How is the library supported?
 - b. Is it a part of a state system?
 - c. What work does it perform in addition to distributing books?
 - d. How many people in your local community use the library?
 - e. What are the educational qualifications for the position of librarian?
2. Have you ever thought of being a librarian? What personal traits do you think a good librarian should possess?



THE NEW MUSEUM IN GOLDEN GATE PARK

The architecture and landscape gardening here are reminiscent of the Panama Pacific International Exposition. Many cities are employing experts to plan the landscapes in their parks. (*Courtesy of San Francisco Chamber of Commerce.*)

13. Many community activities are educational.

Nearly all recreation has its educational side. When we spend a day in a beautiful park, we understand more fully

the growth of plants under different conditions of soil and moisture, and we improve our insight into the work of the landscape gardener. Perchance the park contains a museum in which are kept relics of past ages and curious belongings of far-away peoples. By viewing them and thinking about them in their relationship to our own times and our own customs we add to our store of knowledge and increase our appreciation of nature. The zoo and the tropical gardens teach us similar lessons. The baseball fields, tennis courts, golf links, lagoons, and natatoriums show us how to develop our physical health, a distinctly educational service.

On the way home we see from the car window theaters, shops, club houses, lecture halls, an art gallery, numerous churches, and perhaps a newspaper office. If we stop to consider a moment we can see for ourselves what special activities of most of these institutions are educational.

1. Have you ever visited a department store in a fairly large city? Did you learn anything about new kinds of materials, new styles in clothing, etc.?
2. Why are stores interested in educating the public?
3. Make a list of the things some club to which you belong is doing to make you more intelligent. Is there a woman's club in your community? What part of its work is educational?
4. From what standpoint is a concert educational?
5. Make lists of the other educational activities in your community not mentioned in this chapter.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Reed, *Loyal Citizenship*. (World Book Co.)
Chap. xxv — "Training Citizens."
2. Dunn, *Community Civics and Rural Life*. (Heath.)
Chap. xix — "Education."
Dunn, *Community Civics for City Schools*. (Heath.)
Chap. x — "Education and the Community."
Both of these chapters put their main emphasis on our national problems in education.
3. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
Lesson A-11 — "Education as Encouraged by Industry."

4. Hill, *Community Life and Civic Problems*. (Ginn.)
Chap. III — "The School."
5. Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C. *The Money Value of Education*,
Bulletin, 1917, No. 22.
This bulletin gives a graphic statement of the money-getting power of
education. Every pupil should obtain a copy for his own use.
6. Henderson, *The Social Spirit in America*. (Scott, Foresman.)
Chap. XII — "The Social Spirit in the State School System."
7. Cubberley, *Changing Conceptions of Education*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
The book is a study of the changing ideals in our education put in brief,
attractive form.
8. Franklin, *Autobiography*. (Holt.)
Chap. II — "Beginning Life as a Printer."
The latter part of the chapter tells us about Franklin's apprenticeship to
his brother. It is one of the best stories we have of the education of an
apprentice in colonial days.
9. Small, *Early New England Schools*. (Ginn.)
Chap. IV — "The Ancient Schoolmaster."
Chap. IX — "Schoolhouses."
Chap. XI — "The Early Education of Girls."
10. Palmer, *The Life of Alice Freeman Palmer*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
Chap. II — "Childhood."
Chap. III — "Girlhood."
These chapters show clearly how the home, the neighborhood, and the
school all combined to develop the best in this remarkable girl who was
destined to become one of America's greatest educators.
11. Kelly, *Little Citizens. Wards of Liberty*.
These two little volumes are humorous stories about children in the
schools of New York City.
12. Heyliger, *High Benton*. (Appleton.)
This novel tells an interesting story. The central idea is the value of
education in obtaining positions in the industrial world and solid friend-
ships in our social life.
13. Johnson, *Old Time Schools and School Books*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. III — "The New England Primer."
Chap. VII — "Noah Webster and his Spelling Book."
Chap. XII — "The First American Geography."
Every pupil will enjoy reading the selections from these early texts and
looking at the quaint illustrations.
14. Longfellow, *Hiawatha*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
III — "Hiawatha's Childhood."
It shows how Indian methods taught the child what he needed to know
in order to be a successful member of his tribe. The illustrations in this
edition are exceptionally good.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Bobbitt, *The Curriculum*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 Chap. VII — "Purposes of Vocational Training."
 Dr. Bobbitt presents the problems of vocational training as problems of training for social service.
2. Dewey, *The School and Society*. (University of Chicago Press.)
 This book is undoubtedly one of the best statements we have of the place of the school in our modern social organization.
3. Ellwood, *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*. (American Book Co.)
 Chap. XV — "Education and Social Progress."
4. Lapp and Mote, *Learning to Earn*. (Bobbs-Merrill Co.)
 Chap. I — "The Purposes of Education."
 Chap. II — "Passing Education Around."
 Chap. III — "Wherein the Present System Fails."
 In these chapters industry is pictured as judging education in the light of its needs. The whole book is worth reading.
5. Palmer, *The Teacher*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 Chap. I — "The Ideal Teacher."
 Chap. VII — "The Glory of the Imperfect."
 Among all of Professor Palmer's splendid essays on education, these two are preëminent.
6. American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 67, *New Possibilities in Education*.
 Part I — A — Griggs, "The Moral Training of Children."
 Part I — B — Brewer, "Vocational Guidance in School and Occupation."
 Part I — C — Field, "Education for Home Life on the Farm."
 Part I — D — Moore, "Children, Libraries, and the Love of Reading."
7. Dewey, *Democracy and Education*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. XXIII — "Vocational Aspects of Education."

CHAPTER V

THE CHURCH IN THE COMMUNITY

OUR family, our school, our town, our county, our state, our nation, and our industrial groups perform certain indispensable tasks and have a legal right to demand our coöperation. Although the church is unable to compel us to assist in furthering its ends, nevertheless it also renders essential service in community life by helping us to formulate our personal and community ideals and by encouraging us to work for their attainment.

Problems for you to investigate

THE PHILANTHROPIES OF OUR COMMUNITY

When we study our local community we see some of its members suffering from cold and hunger, from wrongs inflicted by thoughtless people, from sorrow, loneliness, and disease. An outward expression of an inward religious life is to minister to these human wants by feeding the hungry, by clothing the naked, by comforting the sorrowful, and by caring for the sick. It is the purpose of this study to discover to what extent this religious spirit manifests itself in our community.

I. On a map of your town, city, or neighborhood, locate:

1. The churches.
2. The local office of the United Charities, or other similar non-sectarian organization for the relief and prevention of poverty.
3. The local office of the county agent, or other official whose work it is to investigate and assist cases of poverty reported to him.
4. Day nurseries for children whose mothers are employed.
5. Hospitals and clinics.
6. Special sectarian charitable organizations.
7. The Red Cross shop.

8. The Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Y.M.H.A., and K.C. buildings.
 9. Settlement houses.
- II. Divide your class into committees to make special studies of the philanthropies you have discovered in your community. Use the following suggestions:
1. What is the source of support, that is, by public taxation, by private donation, or by endowment?
 2. What is the cost of maintenance? If the institution is supported by taxation, a statement of its cost will be found in the annual report of some official. For example, the cost of maintaining a public clinic will be found in the report of the head of the Health Department.
 3. What is the number of people reached by this activity annually?
 4. What are the special aims of the institution? These are easiest to discover in the case of privately supported institutions. Ask for literature.
 5. What part does the institution play in improving the quality of the community's life?
 6. What are the ways in which you may work with this agency to make your community a better place to live in?



A CHURCH IN A PROSPEROUS RURAL COMMUNITY
Farmers and their families come long distances in order to participate in the social and religious life centered in this church.

1. The church is closely related to the family.

Under pioneer conditions religious life is entirely in the hands of the individual family. A church is usually the result of voluntary cooperation between a number of like-minded families living reasonably close together. Churches in our early settlements helped fam-

ilies to work together for many purposes. To them came the fathers, mothers, and children for divine worship on Sun-

days. During the week they served as school-houses for the children, and in them the fathers conducted the sessions of the town meeting. Thus the church was the focus of the religious, educational, political, and social life of the people. Such conditions as these exist to-day only among small groups of pioneers living in frontier communities.

Although there is to-day a great variety of religious faiths in large cities, each separate church is still the result of coöperation between like-minded families, and strives to develop activities adapted to the needs of every member of a family group. The boys and girls are given opportunities to participate in the programs of the Sunday school. The mothers are invited to join the missionary society, and the fathers are welcomed to the church brotherhood. Through such activities every member of the family develops loyalty to his church and a deeper appreciation of his home circle.

1. Make a list of the denominations in your neighborhood. Why do we have such a variety of churches? Why is religious toleration necessary?
2. In coöperation with your art instructor make an attractive poster which gives names and locations of religious institutions in your neighborhood. Place in some hotel, library, or other suitable public place.
3. Compare the activities of some church near your home with those of a church in a primitive New England colony.

2. The church helps to educate the community.

When Herodotus, the "father of history" (485-425 B.C.), went traveling to collect information about the peoples and institutions of the world as then known, he found that whatever was of abiding worth in the community was sheltered in the temples. The temples of the ancient world were not only religious shrines, observatories, libraries, and clinics, but also museums and treasure-houses. For long ages the priests were the only people who could read or write, or who had time to devote to study. Consequently the chief way to

obtain information on any subject was to go to the temple. By a gradual process education has managed to free itself from these restrictions. Now we have scores of educational agencies: for example, schools, libraries, theaters, magazines, newspapers, museums, and art galleries. The ability to read and write has been developed in the masses of the people in the world to the vast enrichment of human life.

The churches still exert much influence along educational lines. In our study of education in our community we noticed that many colleges and universities have been founded by religious denominations, and that Catholics and Lutherans support parochial schools in which their children receive daily instruction in their religion. However, most of our churches entrust the religious instruction of their children to the Sunday schools. Such schools are now established in every civilized land, and are training their twenty million pupils in the way to live lives of righteousness and beauty.

In crowded sections of large cities some churches are ministering to the educational needs of their people along many lines. For example, a pastor finds that his people are feeding their babies impure milk. He obtains exhibits which demonstrate the direct relation between pure milk and healthy babies. Then he transforms an unused room into a milk station. He sees the boys in the neighborhood congregating on street-corners. In the church membership the pastor knows a young man gifted in the ability to lead boys. Working together the two men organize a troop of Boy Scouts and help them to equip a clubroom in the basement of the church. Other activities are added as their need becomes evident. Thus the church gives to the community not only education along religious lines but in such other fields as necessity demands.

1. What is an institutional church? (Use your dictionary.)
2. Why were the first schools in the American colonies closely connected with the churches? Why have most elementary and secondary schools become public?

3. The church inspires us to live noble lives.

Foremost among the ideas expressed in the magnificent literature of the church is that God is the loving, kindly, forgiving father of all mankind. Then, if God is our Father, we are all brothers and sisters, members of a great world-wide family, to whom we owe the same love, service, and sympathy as to those who bear our own name. As an outgrowth of this doctrine of human brotherhood, the church teaches us that we must be kind, thoughtful, just, and merciful. In the church we therefore feel noble impulses and purposes such as do not come to us in the busy turmoil of the work-a-day world.

Enforcing this idealism of the church are noble literature, beautiful art, and stirring music. Long after we have forgotten the detailed information of our school books, we shall still find inspiration in hearing and reading



THE TABERNACLE AT SALT LAKE CITY

The beautiful music produced on the pipe-organ in this tabernacle has inspired thousands of people from all parts of the world.

the Psalms, the Sermon on the Mount, and the courageous orations of Isaiah. We shall still be exalted by anthems, hymns, and songs. We shall still feel the aspirations of those hardy pioneers who placed their religious idealism above bodily comfort. Under these influences the church helps us to return to our homes and to our work imbued with the will to live nobly. This inspiration is undoubtedly the greatest contribution of the church to the community.

1. Why do some people who are not members of churches contribute to their support?
2. Is a neighborhood without churches likely to have better or

worse theaters than one with churches? Why? Compare the newspapers and schools of the two communities.

3. If churches raise the standards of citizenship, why are they not supported by the government?

4. **The churches have originated and assisted philanthropic movements.**

When we were studying the educational activities of the churches we saw the way in which philanthropic movements originate. At the present time many philanthropies which were once closely connected with the church have been crystallized into distinct organizations in order that they may perform their work adequately. Many nurseries, schools for the



AN INSTITUTIONAL CHURCH

This building contains not only the auditorium, but also well-equipped Sunday-school rooms, a dining-room, a kitchen, and social rooms.

blind and deaf, fraternal insurance associations, and aid and relief societies are outgrowths of church activities. Great organizations, such as the United Charities in Chicago, are financed in large measure by the donations of church members. Every year the Red Cross calls upon the churches to assist its publicity campaign and to help to supply workers in its drive for

financial support. The Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Young Men's Hebrew Association, and the Knights of Columbus are the offspring of various churches. Through their work in athletics, their religious study groups, their socials, their discussion clubs, their entertainments, and their dormitories, they are assisting

young men and young women to lead healthy, normal, noble lives.

Along with the churches in their activities the community is doing its part in providing public recreation for all. The public playground, the public health nurse, the public school, and the public recreation center are performing activities started by the churches. Gradually, too, the community has come to see the advisability of taking public care of the unfortunate classes. Orphanages, reform schools, homes for the poor and aged are as a rule no longer under church control. The town, city, county, and state have taken up much of this burden.

Home missionary societies were the first to establish schools among the Indians and the negroes. Foreign missions in Africa and the Orient are carrying the religion and ideals of Western civilization to peoples who have received a less fortunate social heritage than we. As soon as native teachers can be trained they assist the missionaries in their efforts to reach more people. Without doubt education in these lands will in time be supported by their own governments through the coöperation of all the people. Then the missionaries will seek new fields where the process can be repeated. The churches are thus able to look far into the future and to lay plans for human advancement in new fields, in places where the people are not yet ready to lend a hand.

1. Is there a home missionary society in any church in your neighborhood? If so, find out what specific work it is doing.
2. Enumerate the duties and tasks of a foreign missionary.

5. Social service work is an exacting profession.

Social service work includes not only clergymen and those who are engaged in strictly religious work but also those who are performing any of the tasks mentioned in this chapter. Workers in recreation parks, in social settlements, in charity organizations, in health centers, in the care of the unfortunate, all these are social service workers. In fact, nearly all con-

scientious people spend part of their time in ministering to the needs of others.

Professional social service workers need to have thorough training and rigorous personal qualifications. Since very few



HULL HOUSE, CHICAGO

This institution is one of the most famous settlement houses in the world. It is located in a very densely populated section of the city inhabited by Italians, Slavs, Irish, Jews, Poles, Lithuanians, Russians, Bohemians, and Croatians. (*Courtesy of Chicago Boosters' Publicity Club.*)

positions pay large salaries, workers must be willing to live on smaller incomes and with fewer comforts than they might have in other work. They must be willing to forget themselves and their own needs as Red Cross workers do in times of disaster. They must be courageous enough to investigate causes of evil, fearless enough to tell the truthful results

of their investigations, and virile enough to assume responsibility. To those who possess such qualifications the field of social service calls.

1. Make a list of the kinds of social service work being carried on in your community.
2. Are most of the workers paid professional people, or are they volunteers? Have you ever done any volunteer service? If so, for what organization? Did the work appeal to you?
3. Do you think social service workers ought to have good educations? Why, or why not?
4. Select a committee of your class to make an appointment for an interview with some professional social service worker in your community. If possible try to have him speak to your class on the work of his organization.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Hill, *Community Life and Civic Problems*. (Ginn.)
 Chap. IV — "The Church."
 This chapter tells how religious beliefs and modern churches developed, what the church does for the community, and what are some of our present religious problems.
2. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
 Lesson B-20 — "The Church as a Social Institution."
 Certain needs not otherwise provided are met by the church. This lesson shows why and how.
3. Blaikie, *The Personal Life of David Livingstone*. (Revell.)
 Chap. III — "First Two Years in Africa."
 Chap. XXII — "From Unyanyembe to Bangweolo."
 Chapter III tells of Livingstone's ordination and his early experiences in his chosen field of missionary endeavor. Chapter XXII tells of his last missionary journey and the circumstances of his death. The entire book is an intensely interesting story of one of the greatest of Christian missionaries.
4. Field, *Heroes of Missionary Enterprise*. (Lippincott.)
 Chap. I — "John Eliot, the Apostle of the Red Indians."
 Chap. IX — "In the Forests of Dutch Guiana."
 Chap. XII — "From Slave to Bishop."
 Chap. XXI — "Robert Clark in the Punjab."
 These chapters give typical pictures of the efforts of missionaries to kindle new life among the people of uncivilized lands.
5. Longfellow, *Hiawatha*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 v — "Hiawatha's Fasting."
 XXII — "Hiawatha's Departure."
6. Connor, *The Sky Pilot*. (Revell.)
 This novel is a vivid story of the work of a preacher in the foothills east of the Rocky Mountains.
7. Lowell, *The Vision of Sir Launfal*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 The knight travels afar in quest of opportunities to serve the Master only to find he has left his greatest opportunity at home.
8. Van Dyke, *The Story of the Other Wise Man*. (Harper's.)

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Jackson, *A Community Church*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 Chap. VII — "The American Church: A Community Center."
 Chap. VIII — "A Community Center and a Community Church."
 The author's thesis is that it is the function of the church in America to do in its own community the same kind of work which great missionaries, like Carey and Livingstone, did in foreign lands, that is, real constructive community service. The two chapters cited outline the method.
2. Coe, *A Social Theory of Religious Education*. (Scribner's.)
 Chap. VIII — "The Church as Educator."

3. Henderson, *The Social Spirit in America*. (Scott, Foresman.)
Chap. xvii — "The Institutions of Ideals."
This chapter gives an inspiring picture of the aims of the modern church, especially the institutional church.
4. Cope, *Education for Democracy*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. iii — "Democracy as a Religious Ideal."
Chap. iv — "Religion in Democratic Education."
Chap. x — "Democratic Training through the Church."
5. Devine, *Social Work*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. xix — "The Future of Social Work."

CHAPTER VI

THE NEWSPAPER IN THE COMMUNITY

IN our study of the means which the community employs to control its members we learned that public opinion plays a leading rôle. But if large numbers of people are to have some part in the formation of public opinion, there must be some avenue of supplying them with information on which they may base their ideas on current issues. The newspaper in large measure supplies this need.

Problems for you to investigate

THE PURPOSES OF A NEWSPAPER

I.

- A. Get recent copies of any newspaper published near your home. Clip three examples of headlines and first paragraphs of each of the following kinds of news reports:
 1. Foreign news dated in a foreign country.
 2. General news of interest to the whole nation, like reports of sessions of Congress, affairs of well-known people, large public gatherings, etc.
 3. News of special interest to the residents of your state, like changes in the plan of automobile registration, work of state officials, etc.
 4. News of interest to your local community.
 5. Sporting news.
 6. Commercial news.
 - B. Clip two or three editorials which interest you.
 - C. Clip one display advertisement, not necessarily a large one, and a group of classified advertisements.
 - D. Clip one special article.
- Paste these clippings in order in your notebook. Label each group.

- II. Study the clippings carefully with a view to answering the following questions about each one:
- A. Why did the editor publish this news item, or editorial, or advertisement?
 - B. Is it any part of a campaign to shape public opinion in our community? If so, in what way?
 - C. Is its publication a source of revenue to the paper? To the owners? To anybody?
 - D. Do the news items deal with things that are settled or things under discussion? Do they give the reader a complete picture? Where do you go to find out the beginning, middle, and end of a controversy?
 - E. Is the paper using its space for sensational articles at the expense of more solid material? If so, why?
 - F. Do you think that systematic reading of a newspaper is worth while? Why?

i. Democratic government depends upon wide popular interest in public affairs.

Widespread popular government demands a steady supply of correct information upon public affairs to all its citizens



MAKING PAPER IN COLONIAL NEW ENGLAND
A large supply of cheap paper is essential to the life of journalism. (Courtesy of Old Colony Trust Company, Boston.)

because such information is the only means by which a man's interest can be maintained. In our times through daily newspapers and the weekly and monthly magazines, our government is assured of adequate popular interest in public affairs. Without these news agencies there could be no in-

telligent public opinion and therefore no real democracy. For example, we know that a sort of democracy existed in Ancient

Greece without the aid of journalism. The Romans, too, had a great Republic without newspapers. But it is important to notice that government by the people could exist only as long as the community was small. The people within the walls of Rome could keep track of the city's affairs through the public meetings in the Forum; but if a man lived so far from the city that he could not attend these meetings, he lost touch with the public affairs of Rome. If he were rich he could hire slaves to copy the important bulletins posted in the Forum, although he had no means of controlling the selections made. He had to trust the matter to chance and to the good judgment of his slave. Thus through widespread inability to secure accurate information on the affairs of the Republic, there developed a great lack of interest in civic affairs throughout the provinces. Gradually democratic institutions decayed, and tyranny resulted.

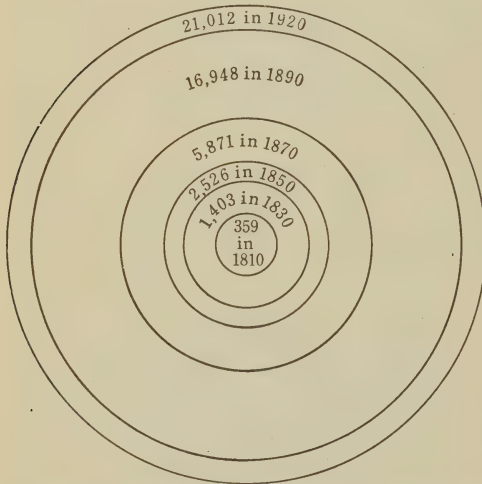
Try to imagine the effect on our lives if all the newspapers and all the news magazines suddenly suspended publication. The local governments in small towns would probably prosper nearly as well as ever. There would be more public meetings at which more people would be present, more official notices which more people would read, and more face-to-face discussion on the problems of local government. On the other hand, more wild rumors would be in the air. In large cities greater confusion would result, largely because of the greater number of services which city governments perform. This confusion would exceed all possibility of control at times of crisis in our national life. We would have no means of securing accurate information of the work of our officials, nor would our representatives know what course we desired them to pursue, nor would we know what circumstances were influencing their decisions. For these reasons we must have news agencies to present to all the people the trend of current events in the world to-day.

1. What newspapers are there in your community? How do they differ from one another?

2. What do you think would happen in your community if all the papers suddenly suspended publication? Where would the effects be felt first?
3. Do outside papers come into your community? If so, what do people gain by reading them?

2. Sound public opinion depends upon a free press and upon free speech.

Under the old theory of government, when people believed that citizens were created for the government and not the



HOW THE NUMBER OF NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES HAS INCREASED SINCE 1810

government for the citizens, there could be no free press and no free speech. Officials in governmental circles thought chiefly of keeping themselves and their friends in power. They were little concerned with the desires and necessities of the common people. Therefore they did their utmost to prevent the people from expressing their aspirations.

Laws were made to keep the public meetings and the few newspapers under strict supervision.

In the American colonies a very different state of affairs came into being. The freedom of life fostered by the great stretches of open country developed habits of free speech and free press which could not be controlled by distant kings. Freedom of the press meant freedom from the restrictions

imposed upon it by the British government. It meant the right to print criticisms of the existing government, news and views of political parties, and discussions of current interest. Many people to-day think that the newspapers ought to print all the news whether it is for the good of the community or not. The principle of free press for which our fathers strove was not intended to admit unlimited scandals to the press; it was concerned with the political freedom of the people. A glance at one of America's early journals will give an idea of this new, free journalism that fought for American liberty and helped to lay the foundations of a government in which every citizen has a voice.

The first political newspaper in the American colonies was the *Boston Gazette*, edited and published by Samuel Adams. In its pages were fought the political battles for American independence. Its purpose was to awaken in Americans a sense of indignation over their wrongs, and thus to keep alive their resentment against King George and his unfriendly ministers. From Boston the campaign of publicity and propaganda was directed. It was necessary that the Boston paper should arouse the other colonies in order that all might join in a serious fight against the King. This early work of journalism was done by comparatively few men. When they were not professional journalists themselves, they either became journalists, or else, like Jefferson in Virginia, they induced others to use the press. Within a few years there were many political newspapers in the colonies, all closely resembling the *Gazette* in Boston. Their work was largely responsible for the feeling of unity which gradually developed from Maine to Georgia.

Out of these experiences came the firm conviction that government should be by and for the people. Consequently, at the same time as our national constitution was submitted to the states for ratification, Congress also submitted certain amendments. A part of the first amendment reads, "Congress shall make no law abridging the freedom of speech or of

the press." In state constitutions this guarantee is repeated. Thus both our national and our state governments are pledged to maintain the freedom of the press, and by their pledge they make democracy possible.

1. It has been said, "Nobody will ever overthrow a government if you will let him talk." Do you agree? Why?
 2. Find the article in your state constitution which guarantees certain rights to the citizens of your state. In what words is freedom of speech and of the press guaranteed?
- 3. The good newspaper guards the community's interests.**

A community looks to its editors not only for news but also



EDITING A SCHOOL PAPER

This picture shows a reporter from a daily newspaper in a large city supervising the publication of a high-school weekly newspaper. By association with a trained journalist these pupils are learning the art of influencing public opinion in their school community. (*Laval Company.*)

for arousing interest in necessary improvements. Lawyers, doctors, teachers, and clergymen fill their places in the community; but they are so busy looking after their own individual clients, patients, pupils, and church-members that they have little time left for a thorough study and consideration of community problems. This task falls largely to the editor. A capable editor is familiar with accomplishments in other places. Through interviews and study he gains first hand and up-to-date knowledge of government, of scientific methods for protecting public health,

for maintaining an effective fire department, for developing a good school system, and so on. He also knows his community's resources, and he keeps in touch with its leading citizens. Single-handed, however, even a courageous and well-informed editor is not able to accomplish reforms. Day after day, as long as necessary to arouse public sentiment, his editorial columns present the common dangers and the common advantages his community is facing. For example, he may urge the improvement of the schools, now by advocating a bond issue for new buildings, now by advising the purchase of additional land for playgrounds, and again by presenting to the citizens problems of supervision or superintendence. A worthy editor pursues the same policy when the city needs a new highway or a new mayor, always guarding the community's welfare by far-sighted discussion of its problems. Eventually his efforts are successful, for the community is stirred and reforms follow.

1. Who are the editors of your papers? Do any members of your class know any of them personally?
2. What improvements are your local papers advocating now? Do you think these improvements will be made? Why?
3. Are your newspapers discussing any national questions? If so, what policy do they advocate?

4. The newspapers draw the people together.

Many daily papers are in two sections, the first dealing with matters of general concern, and the second devoted to local affairs. We have seen how necessary newspapers are if we are to have a great democracy, and also if our local communities are to prosper. A new church may be organized, a new house may be built, a new partnership may be formed, a club may be entertained, or a party of people may go to the mountains or seashore; no matter what happens the reporters are interested in getting the news to the public. Such news helps to make community life more interesting, more human. It helps to develop pride in local people and in local institutions.

It makes for wider sympathies and better coöperation. Incidentally, it increases the paper's circulation. Newspapers in large cities carry a great many "human interest" stories and special sections for the housewife, the home dressmaker, the automobilist, a comic section for the children, as well as numerous large and small advertisements of interest to the various members of the family. The aim is to appeal to as many different kinds of people as possible and thus to bring all the members of the community into a better understanding of one another.

1. What is "yellow" journalism?
2. What part of the paper do you read most frequently? What part does your father read? Your mother?
3. What do you gain from the reading of newspapers?
4. What is meant by saying that a newspaper is a good advertising medium?

5. Newspapers gather their news from many sources.

Nearly every newspaper belongs to one of the two large news-gathering organizations, the Associated Press or the United Press. These news-gathering agencies maintain representatives in every large center of population in the United States whose business it is to select items of general interest to other parts of our nation and to report them to central bureaus. This news is carefully edited and then telegraphed to local newspapers. As every paper is eager to give its readers accurate accounts of current events, the reporters for the press associations must be capable, alert men, otherwise their association will be censured severely by the newspapers it serves. The Associated Press is a coöperative organization with a membership of nearly nine hundred papers. It makes no money profits. Any paper which can afford to lease a telegraph line may belong to the United Press. Between these two associations there is considerable healthy rivalry which keeps both of them wide awake in search for accurate news. News from foreign countries is obtained

through foreign news agencies and through special correspondents as well as through the press associations.

Although a newspaper depends largely upon its press association for its telegraphic news, it secures its local news from a great variety of sources. Many clues for good "stories" come from fires, arrests, bank failures, calls for assistance, and from the police courts. In every large city the papers have reporters whose sole work it is to follow these clues. Other reporters are stationed at important railway stations, in the City Hall, around the Federal Building, and at political headquarters during campaigns. Much news is also uncovered by the ordinary citizen. Every minister helps to create news because he is required by law to report the marriage ceremonies he performs. Physicians do likewise because they must send to the Health Department their records of contagious diseases, deaths, births, and their calls to assist those who have attempted suicide. Every report the undertaker makes to the coroner or to the health department may also reach the papers. You also create news whenever you ask for the arrest of some one, make complaint to the police in regard to a noisy neighbor, apply for permission to improve your property, or in any way enter your name on public records.

1. Why is it necessary for newspapers to be careful about the truth of the news they print?
2. Do your local papers belong to the Associated Press? If not, what is the source of their telegraphic news?

6. The policy of a newspaper is usually determined by its editors.

Practically all newspapers which succeed in influencing public opinion to any marked degree stanchly advocate certain lines of action. In season and out of season they seek to make their opinions and ideals the opinions and ideals of the community. At some times they publish editorials which give the logical basis for their beliefs. On other occasions they publish statements of leading citizens. Or they give extended space to

reports of certain news items which develop their point of view. Or their special reporters secure "human interest" stories. Through all these means they seek to convert all the people to their way of thinking. The aims expressed in these ways give a newspaper a distinctive character which makes it different from other journals, a quality which is called its policy.

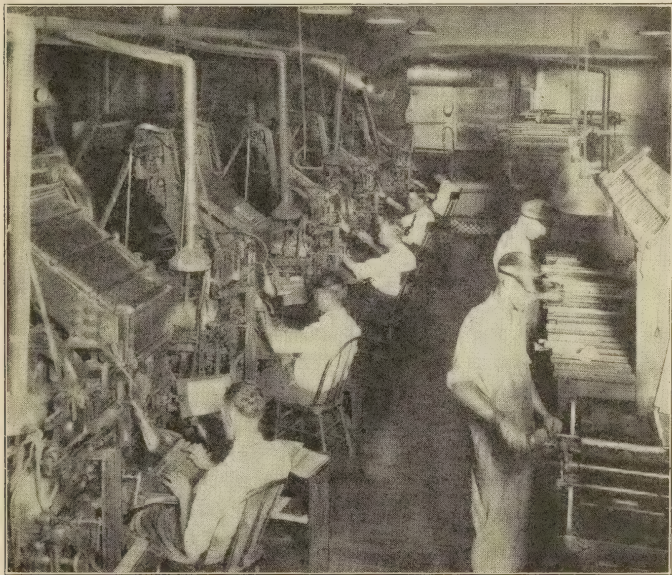
The policy of a newspaper may be determined by a large number of factors. Perhaps the owners or editors wish to promote some private political or industrial enterprises. However, most progressive newspapers realize the value of unselfish service to their communities. Therefore many owners no longer see in their newspapers the means to develop some scheme of their own at the expense of the general public, but are managing their newspapers as business ventures independent of any other interests they may have. They are leaving editors the task of determining the policy. Since ever-increasing numbers of our editors are graduates of universities and schools of journalism and are men of keen minds and large experience, they are able to give their communities the benefit of their wide reading and sound thinking. We may consequently expect that the policies which our progressive newspapers advocate will be for the advancement of the best interests of our communities.

1. What famous men have been interested in the newspapers you read?
2. Get copies of the *Literary Digest* for the past month from your librarian. Make a list of all the owners of newspapers mentioned in the section entitled "Topics of the Day."
3. Why does our national government require owners and editors to file their names with the Post-Office Department semi-annually? Why does it require them to publish their names in their papers?

7. Newspapers need men of energy, tact, and courage.

Practically all great newspaper men began as "cub" reporters. The work of a reporter brings him into contact

with people of all positions and of all dispositions. His approach must be tactful in order that he may gain the accurate information he seeks, for lack of tact antagonizes some people and confuses others. A reporter also needs to think quickly and to act quickly. As a general rule he cannot plan the time or place of his interviews because he must seek out his information at such times and in such places as



PREPARING THE TYPE FOR PRINTING THE NEWS

The men on the left are operating linotype machines, the invention which is at the foundation of rapid printing. The men on the right are taking proofs of the work just completed by the linotype operators. These proofs are carefully read by experts and then returned for correction before the galleys are sent to the presses for printing. (*Courtesy of Fresno Morning Republican.*)

opportunity offers. Very soon after he finds his news he must have his "story" ready for his superiors. Sometimes a reporter is tempted to change the tone of his report in a way that will shield business or personal friends. If he does this he is withholding from the paper's readers their chance to

obtain correct information on the day's happenings. Successful journalists therefore develop a high regard for courageous honesty, for they realize that in their hands lies a great part of the responsibility for developing sound public opinion in the community.

1. Are you personally acquainted with any editors or reporters? If so, try to find out what work they do, and why they enjoy newspaper life.
2. Appoint a committee of your class to write to or to interview some successful journalist in your community. If possible arrange for him to speak to your class.
3. Have you ever considered journalism as your life work? If so, will you need a good education? Why? What other qualifications will you have to meet?

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Payne, *History of Journalism*. (Appleton.)
 - Chap. III — "The First Journals and their Editors."
 - Chap. IV — "Philadelphia and the Bradfords."
 - Chap. V — "Printing in New York."
 Together these chapters give an interesting account of colonial journalism and its difficulties.
 - Chap. XIII — "Adams and the Alien and Sedition Laws."
 The discussion is mainly on the question of free press.
2. Given, *Making a Newspaper*. (Holt.)
 - Chap. I — "The American Newspaper."
 It is a good general discussion of the present standing of the newspaper in our country.
 - Chap. V — "Uncovering the News."
 - Chap. VI — "The Police as News-Gatherers."
 These two chapters unravel the great puzzle of news-gathering. Though the chapters listed are of special interest in connection with the materials presented in this chapter, any pupil with journalistic inclinations will find the entire book of absorbing interest.
3. Thorpe, *The Coming Newspaper*. (Holt.)

The book is a collection of articles by American journalists. Of interest for our purpose are:

 - a. "Unto Whom Much is Given," Melville E. Stone, Associated Press.
 - b. "A Modern Type of Country Journalism," Ralph Tennal, *Atchison Globe*.
 - c. "Community Service," Frank L. Blanchard.
4. *Literary Digest*, January 22, 1921 — "The Whence and Whither of Newspapers."

It is a brief humorous fling at the present power of journalists.

5. *Saturday Evening Post*, November 1, 1921 — "The Young Man in Journalism," Chester S. Lord.
It is a very good popular account of reporters and their work.
6. Consult the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* for numerous other magazine articles along journalistic lines.
7. Lee, *Opportunities in the Newspaper Business*. (Harper's.)
8. Franklin, *Autobiography*. (Holt.)
Chap. II — "Beginning Life as a Printer."
It describes Franklin's love of books, the modest beginnings of his literary career, and his apprenticeship to his brother.
Chap. V — "Poor Richard's Almanac and Other Activities."
9. Riis, *The Making of an American*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. VI — "I Become an Editor."
10. Wade, *Pilgrims of Today*. (Little, Brown & Co.)
"Joseph Pulitzer."
It is an interesting sketch of Pulitzer's rise to the ownership of the *New York World*.
11. Beard, *Our Foreign-Born Citizens*. (Crowell.)
(a) "The Man Who Made the First Real Newspaper."
This brief sketch deals with James Gordon Bennett, the founder of the *New York Herald*.
(b) "The Man Who Revolutionized Typesetting."
It tells of Ottmar Mergenthaler and the linotype machine.
12. Paine, *Roads of Adventure*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
Chap. XXVI — "Colonel Roosevelt Cuts Red Tape."
Chap. XXVII — "Two Knights of Santiago."
Chap. XXXVI — "The Mystic Chords of Sympathy."
These chapters are among the most exciting in this book of the adventures of a foreign correspondent.
13. Chandler, *The Policeman's Art*. (Funk and Wagnalls.)
Chap. XI — "Police and the Press."

READING FOR THE TEACHER

- Lee, *History of Journalism*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
Chap. XIII — "Transition Period."
It gives a good account of the coming of the penny newspaper under the leadership of such men as Greeley and Seward.
Chap. XIX — "Period of Social Readjustment." It gives a detailed account of recent developments in the use of the American press.

CHAPTER VII

FIRE AND POLICE PROTECTION

IN our study of the family, the school, the community, and the church we have assumed peaceful surroundings. We have thought of these groups as composed of law-abiding citizens. We have not directed our attention to the constant menaces of fire and crime. In order to protect the life and property of all against these dangers our citizens have found it necessary to come into close coöperation.

Problems for you to investigate

FIRE PROTECTION IN OUR COMMUNITY

- I. Get a map of the community in which your school is located. On it show:
 - A. Fire stations.
 - B. Boundaries of districts served by each station.
 - C. Recent fires.

You will probably be able to get a list of recent fires from the Chief of your Fire Department. Appoint a committee of your class to write for this information. Be sure to state what your reasons are for making the request.

- II. Study your map with a view to answering the following questions:
 - A. Why are the stations located as they are?
 - B. Why are some districts smaller than others?
 - C. Are the recent fires evenly distributed over the community, or are they grouped? If they are grouped, find out reasons.
- III.
 - A. From your town or city ordinances find out:
 - I. What laws are in force in your community to protect people in theaters and in assembly halls against fires?

2. What special laws are there to prevent fires in the business district? Ask your father or any business man whom you know. Many fire departments issue bulletins of special interest to business men. If possible get one.
3. Do your laws require fire drills in schools? If so, what can you do to make these drills of greater value?

B. Draw up a model set of rules for your own behavior in case of fire in your home, your school, in a theater, church, or other public place.

C. If there are no placards or signs posted in the rooms and halls of your school, appoint a committee to interview your principal in order to volunteer your services in constructing and posting such signs in such places as he may think suitable.

IV. From reports of the Chief of your Fire Department find out:

A. Total number of fires in your community last year.

B. Total property losses from fire in your community last year.

C. Total number of injuries and deaths from fires.

D. Chief causes of fires. How many were preventable?

V. From reports of the National Board of Fire Underwriters in New York City obtain similar information for other communities whose population is approximately the same as that of your village, town, or city. Compare these results with the figures obtained for your own community.

VI.

A. Through a committee of your class arrange for an excursion to the engine house nearest to your school and for an explanation of the local work being done to fight and to prevent fires.

B. Appoint another committee of your class to write to or to interview the Chief of your Fire Department with a view to discovering the best ways in which you may co-operate with him to reduce fire losses in your community. Perhaps he will be able to utilize your help during fire prevention week.

1. Protection of life and property is the first need felt by the community.

Most of us live in communities whose organization is so complicated that we have difficulty in seeing the underlying reasons for many of our group activities. The pioneer groups that settled our country had the same fundamental needs as we have now. If we glance at the organization of one of these early groups we shall see some of our own problems in simplified form.

Let us look at a group of Americans on their way to the California gold fields in 1849. Then the chief means of transportation across the prairies and mountains was the prairie schooner. These schooners usually traveled in caravans because the trails were beset by Indians. During the day every person had an assigned duty, driving, or watching, or cleaning guns, or on the lookout for wild game. At night the only possibility of safety was within the circle of the wagons. By constant vigilance the men warded off attacks, or by heroic bravery repelled them. Every member of the caravan was well aware of the danger on all sides, and therefore every member coöperated for the protection of all.

When the pioneer group reached its destination in the gold fields and set up a permanent camp, the need for definite rules to guard life and property became apparent. The easiest task was to protect the people against attack by the Indians. Far more difficult were the tasks of protecting the law-abiding citizens against the careless and lawless members of their own group. Some of those who had called loudest for protection during the journey westward, being unwilling to bear the hardships of the new life, found it easier to steal their neighbors' gold than to prospect along the rivers and in the mountains. Frequent quarrels arose in the taverns in which men who had been working in the mountains for months were in danger of losing their lives and property. If the community had permitted these types of lawlessness to continue, few men would have been willing to work. As law-abiding citizens saw the

need for coöperation for mutual protection, they set up definite rules and appointed special police to enforce them.

Every community, no matter whether it is a pioneer town, a great city, or a rural suburb, feels this same need of protection. Small towns in rural districts have their constables. Counties have sheriffs and deputies; cities have highly organized police departments; the state has its militia, and the nation has the army, the navy, and the marines. All these organizations exist to perform the tasks of preserving order, protecting life and property, preventing crime, and punishing offenders. Their combined efforts enable one hundred and six million Americans to feel secure.

1. Have state or national troops ever been called into your community? If so, what did they do? How long did they stay? If you can discover the approximate date, look up files of your local newspapers for details.
2. How does the feeling of security affect your work in school? If you knew that Indians were about to raid your community, what would be your attitude toward your school work? Why?

2. The work of a police force is varied.

Although the state militia and the national army stand ready to answer the call of a community in need of help from the outside, local officials hesitate to ask for this assistance. They try to organize the work of the local police in such a way that there will be no need for state or national aid. For this purpose a police department divides its work and selects specialists, or men capable of becoming specialists, for the different branches of its work.

The policeman with whom you are best acquainted is probably the officer who patrols your neighborhood. You came to know him in your early childhood when you wandered outside the familiar surroundings of your own home. He is present at fires and renders aid in case of accidents. He assists the Health Department to enforce its rules. In fact, he is the representative of law in the neighborhood. When he is

on duty at night he recognizes the residents of your neighborhood, and he watches the casual visitors carefully. In this way he protects you and your home against intrusion.

If your school is on a crowded thoroughfare there is probably a traffic policeman to safeguard your life while you are crossing the street. At the intersections of business streets during the



SWITCHBOARD IN POLICE DEPARTMENT OF DAYTON, OHIO

Men on the police force gain their positions through civil service examinations. (Courtesy of City Manager of Dayton.)

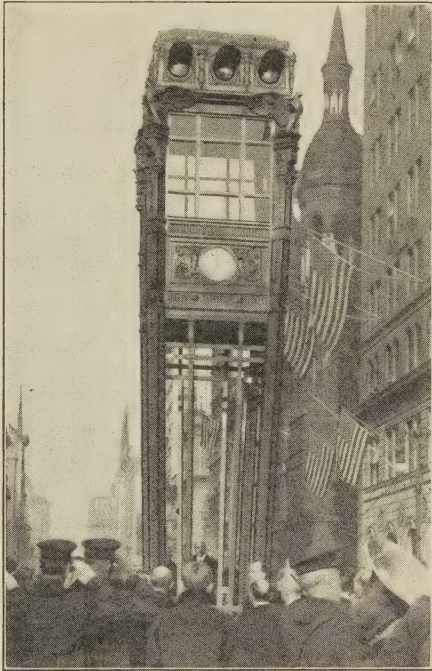
rush hours of the day, other policemen are directing traffic for your safety. On our highways there are motorcycle policemen to prevent the destruction of our pavements by overloaded trucks and to guard our lives against the reckless driver. By the presence of these officers of the law careless citizens are deterred from endangering the lives and property of the law-abiding.

Probably the most interesting part of any police department is the detective bureau. It is the duty of the detective, or "plain clothes man" to keep in touch with the movements of people who are likely to commit crime. The good detective learns the descriptions of stolen automobiles, clothing, watches, jewelry, and other property, and visits pawnshops and second-hand stores in search of it. He also studies the records

kept in the bureau of identification at police headquarters. He is familiar with the faces of people who have been under arrest. By combining the information from all these sources he is able to capture many lawbreakers and to recover much valuable property.

1. Appoint a committee of your class to write a letter to the chief of police requesting an interview. This letter should state what you desire to know about your local police force. Through this interview you may be able to arrange an excursion for your class to the bureau of identification. Perhaps the chief himself will be willing to speak to your class or will allow one of his subordinates to address you.

2. Appoint a committee to make an analysis of the accidents reported in your daily newspaper during the past week. In each case list the cause of the accident.
3. What steps has your community taken to reduce the number of accidents? Has anything been done to prevent accidents on your school grounds? If so, what?

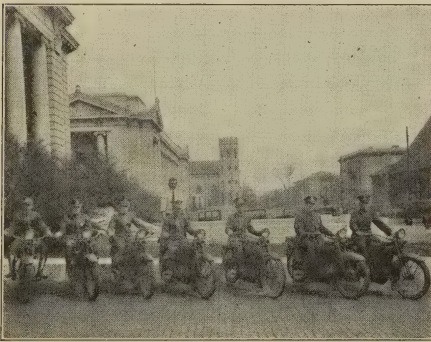


THE UNVEILING OF THE FIRST OF THE SEVEN
NEW BRONZE TRAFFIC CONTROL TOWERS
FOR FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK

The photograph shows the master tower at Forty-Second Street just after it was unveiled. This tower controls all traffic in the business section of Fifth Avenue. (Copyright, Underwood & Underwood.)

3. A police force is like a military organization.

When your older brothers were called into the service of the nation during the World War, they had to undergo physical and mental examinations. The results of these tests enabled the government to assign each man to the task for which he was best fitted. For the same reason the police department examines applicants carefully. It needs men with vigorous, healthy bodies and alert minds. It needs men of dauntless courage, loyal to their superior officers, loyal to



MOTOR-CYCLE SQUAD OF POLICE DEPARTMENT
IN MEMPHIS, TENNESSEE

Many cities are organizing squads of this kind to make the escape of law-breakers more difficult. (Courtesy of Harley-Davidson Motor Company.)

their fellow-citizens, and willing to risk their lives for the security of the community even as our brothers were willing to risk their lives for the perpetuation of our democratic institutions.

At the head of this picked body of men in most cities is a chief of police. In some states he is appointed by the governor of the state, while in others he is appointed by the head

of the city government. Below the chief are captains, lieutenants, sergeants, detectives, patrolmen, special officers, traffic officers, and detail policemen. Large cities are divided into precincts each of which is in charge of a captain. In small towns and cities the chief is frequently the only superior of the detectives, patrolmen, and traffic officers.

The personal qualities of the chief of police are important. If the chief promotes the most capable men in his department to the positions of responsibility, he encourages all of his subordinates to put forth their best efforts; but if promotion comes by favoritism or as the result of political work for the

party in power, the best policemen are likely to resign their places. The ideals of the chief permeate his force. A chief who is loyal, intelligent, honest, and reasonable develops loyalty, intelligence, honesty, and good judgment in his men. He inspires in all his subordinates the feeling that the work of a policeman is of paramount value, and thus the security of life and property is increased in the community.

1. Recently a large city reduced its tax rate by reducing the salaries of policemen and firemen. Do you consider such action wise? Why, or why not?
2. How do good salaries and reasonable conditions of work affect the efficiency of a police force? Why?
3. Have you ever considered being a member of a police force? If so, will you need a good education? In what ways is a well-educated policeman superior to one with scanty education?

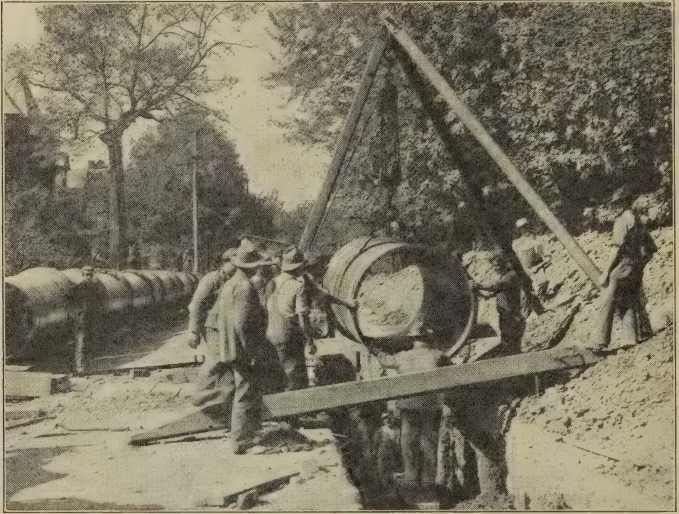
4. Fire is a serious menace to life and property.

According to the statistics of the National Board of Fire Underwriters, whose offices are located in New York City, our property losses by fire in a recent year were 485 million dollars. In other words, for every man, woman, and child in America there was a loss of \$4.50 caused by fire during that year. Every minute of the year \$923 went up in smoke. Not only is there this great property loss, but there is also loss of human life. Over fifteen thousand people yearly lose their lives in fires, and over seventeen thousand are injured. This means that one person in every thirty-five hundred inhabitants in the United States is killed or severely injured by fire each year.

What causes such appalling fire losses in America? The National Board of Fire Underwriters says that the chief causes are:

1. Faulty electric wiring.
2. Carelessness in use of matches.
3. Defective chimneys and flues.
4. Overheated stoves, furnaces, boilers, and pipes.

5. Spontaneous combustion in piles of rubbish.
6. Lightning.
7. Sparks on roofs.
8. Carelessness in the use of petroleum and its products.



LAYING A WATER MAIN

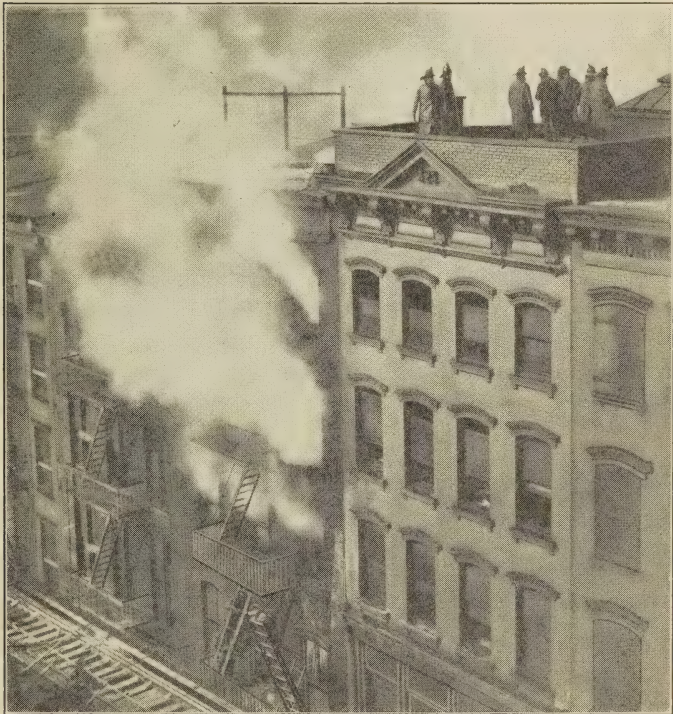
Without an adequate supply of water in all parts of a city, the firemen would be handicapped in their work.

If you examine this list closely you will see that seven out of these eight principal causes are due to carelessness in some form.

1. Has your home ever been destroyed by fire? If so, what was the cause of the fire? Was anybody injured? If so, was the injury serious? Did the fire spread to other houses?
2. Do fire losses usually fall on those people who are responsible for the fire? How does loss of life and property by fire show our dependence upon one another?
3. Examine your house and its surroundings to discover and remove any fire hazards which may exist. Report to the class on what you find. How do you dispose of papers, rags,

worn-out mops, etc.? What precautions do you take in handling gasoline? If there is a closet under a stairway in your house, what do you store there? Why is this matter important?

4. What provisions have been made in your school for the safety of the pupils in case of fire? For the protection of the building?
5. Are your daily newspapers doing anything to prevent fire losses? If so, what?



A FIRE IN A NEW YORK CITY PAPER WAREHOUSE

Spontaneous combustion was said to be the cause of this blaze. Notice the hose stretched across the tracks of the elevated railroad lines. Fires not only cause loss of property, but also great inconvenience to thousands who are in no way responsible for them. (*Copyright, Underwood & Underwood.*)

5. Fire losses are distributed by insurance.

When your father insured your home against fire, he paid a sum of money called a "premium" to a fire insurance company. All the premiums paid to the company by all the people who have insured their property together total a large sum of money. If an insured building burns down, the amount for which it is insured is paid to the owner. But this insurance does not diminish the loss to the community: it merely distributes the loss among all the people whose property is insured. For example, if your corner grocery should burn down, the grocer would collect the insurance. This money would assist him to build another store and to stock it with a fresh supply of groceries. But this money does not take the black from the charred lumber of the first store, nor does it make the burned groceries fit for food. That store and those groceries are lost. In return for the money expended the community should have two stores stocked with groceries, the old one and the new one. Such wastefulness increases not only the cost of groceries in that community, but also the cost of all other commodities that the community needs. Insurance distributes these increased costs among all the members of the community who insure their property.

1. What is the insurance rate paid on homes in your neighborhood? You can get this information from your father or from any local real estate dealer.
2. Is the rate in your neighborhood higher or lower than in other parts of your city? Find out reasons, if possible.
3. Find out all you can about insurance rates in neighboring communities. If these rates are different from those in your community, find out reasons.

6. Communities are endeavoring to prevent fires.

We have seen in section 5 that insurance distributes the loss from fire among many members of the community, but it does not prevent fires, nor does it control them after they have started. However, there are several methods by which

we are trying to lessen fire losses. One is through legislation. In many states there are laws which compel schools to teach fire prevention. Pennsylvania and Massachusetts have passed laws which make those persons whose carelessness has caused fires liable for the cost of extinguishing them. Cleveland, Ohio, has a similar city ordinance. Then, in many towns and cities the local authorities have set aside one day in the year as a fire prevention day. The day usually observed is October 9th, the anniversary of the great Chicago fire of 1871 which destroyed a large part of the city. On this day all the people are asked to inspect their dwellings and places of business for fire hazards. A thorough cleaning and elimination of fire hazards at this time of the year may be the means of preventing serious fire losses during the winter.

Another effective means of preventing fires is the work of the building department in the town or city government. In thickly settled communities there are usually strict regulations concerning the construction of buildings, and also laws requiring the inspection of electric wiring, of boilers, and of steam engines. Many of the buildings in business sections are now being constructed of tile, concrete, or other fireproof material. Such inspection and regulation greatly lessen the danger of widespread conflagrations.

Rural communities are educating their members in fire prevention by emphasizing the necessity for removing fire hazards from the farm. Fire prevention in the country is even more important than in the city because rural districts rarely have organized fire departments. Then, too, the farmer's hay and grain are easily burned, and thus a fire may mean not only the loss of his home but also of the product of his year's labor.

1. Is there a fire prevention bureau in your city? If so, get its reports.
2. Are there any fire hazards in your community? If so, what is being done to remove them? To protect property against them?

3. In some cities owners of vacant property are compelled by law to burn the weeds and grass, while in others there is no such ordinance. Why?

7. America has the best fire-fighters in the world.

If your father was born in a small community, he can probably tell you exciting tales of the fires he helped to fight. Thirty years ago relatively few communities in our country were equipped with paid fire departments. Some places depended upon "bucket brigades" in which men, old and young, lined up from the location of the fire to the nearest supply of water. Then buckets of water were passed from hand to hand. A strong man nearest the fire threw the water as fast as it came to him. If the line could be organized very rapidly, there was some hope of saving the burning structure. Speed was of paramount necessity.

Possibly your father remembers the first hose-cart in your community and also the first fire-engine, a pump mounted on wheels. When a town obtained this kind of equipment, it usually organized a volunteer fire department. A little later it built an engine house, bought a real fire engine, an improved hose-cart, and speedy horses. At the sound of the fire bell the members of the volunteer company dropped their work, rushed to the engine house, manned the apparatus, and sped to the fire. Such volunteer companies still protect many of our smaller towns and villages.

Nearly every large city has modern fire-fighting apparatus mounted upon auto truck chassis. A paid fire department organized on the same lines as the police department cares for and operates the equipment which is located in engine houses in strategic places in the city. At the head of the fire department is the chief. His subordinates are usually organized in companies, one stationed at each engine house. The men usually obtain their positions by the same kind of civil service examinations as those given to policemen. In addition to the qualities necessary for a policeman, a fireman must have agil-

ity. Many city fire departments train their men in special schools in the use of ladders and nets, in improvising smoke masks, in carrying unconscious people, in scaling walls and in administering first aid to the injured. Work of this kind



DAYTON'S FIRE-FIGHTERS

This modern fire-fighting apparatus is the pride of the people of Dayton, Ohio.
(Courtesy of City Manager of Dayton.)

appeals to American manhood. Their speed, discipline, resourcefulness, and courage make Americans the best fire-fighters in the world.

1. Why is speed the first requirement of a good fireman?
2. Where is the alarm box nearest to your school? To your home? How do you turn in an alarm?
3. Who appoints the fire chief in your town? How do the men under him get their positions? Does this system give your town good firemen? Why?

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Jameson, *The Flame Fiend*. (Allyn & Bacon.)
This little book is a series of cleverly written stories about fire prevention and fire protection. Every pupil will enjoy reading it.
2. Hughes, *Elementary Community Civics*. (Allyn & Bacon.)
Chap. III — "Protecting Life and Property."
3. Guitteau, *Preparing for Citizenship*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
Chap. V — "The Protection of the Public."
4. Reed, *Loyal Citizenship*. (World Book Co.)
Chap. XX — "Fire and Police Protection."

5. Dunn, *Community Civics for City Schools*. (Heath.)
Chap. XIII — "The Protection of Property."
6. Dunn, *Community Civics and Rural Life*. (Heath.)
Chap. XVI — "Protection of Property."
This chapter deals with protection of crops and live stock. It is therefore of special interest to rural pupils.
7. Roosevelt, *An Autobiography*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. VI — "The New York Police."
This chapter recounts Roosevelt's experiences during the two years while he was Police Commissioner of New York City.
8. Hill, *Fighting a Fire*. (Century Co.)
Chap. IV — "The Risks of a Fireman's Life."
Chap. V — "Peter Spots — Fireman."
Chap. VI — "Floating Fire — Engines."
The narratives are vivid and illustrated by many realistic pictures.
9. Croker, *Fire Prevention*. (Dodd, Mead & Co.)
Chap. I — "Prevention of Fire in the Dwelling and Small Town."
10. Kenlon, *Fires and Fire-Fighters*. (Doran.)
Chap. XI — "Great Fires and How They Were Fought."
11. Du Puy, *Uncle Sam: Detective*. (Stokes.)
This book is a series of detective stories founded on facts related to the author by special agents of the Department of Justice. It gives us a clear idea of the cases which our national government handles through its great detective bureau in the Department of Justice.
12. Chandler, *The Policeman's Art*. (Funk and Wagnalls.)
Chap. VI — "Riots and Riot Duty."
This chapter describes various kinds of riots and the precautions of the police in their efforts to protect the public.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Zueblin, *American Municipal Progress*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. VIII — "Protection."
In this chapter Zueblin discusses mainly recent progress in fire prevention and the humanizing of our police departments.
2. Munro, *Principles and Methods of Municipal Administration*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. VII — "Police Administration."
Chap. VIII — "Fire Prevention and Fire Protection."
3. Croker, *Fire Prevention*. (Dodd, Mead & Co.)
Chap. XV — "Fire Prevention Bureaus and Fire Marshals."
Chap. XVII — "Law-Making and Fire-Preventive Work along Legal and Other Lines."
4. Kenlon, *Fires and Fire-Fighters*. (Doran.)
Chap. XV — "Fire Control in Schools, Factories, and Hospitals."
Chap. XXIV — "Underwriters and Salvage Corps."

CHAPTER VIII

THE HEALTH OF OUR COMMUNITY

IN the previous chapter you have been considering the means which your community employs to protect your life and property against fire and crime. We have assumed that every member of your group is in such physical health that he is able to bear his full share of responsibility. Also, when you studied the family and the other neighborhood institutions, you took no notice of the relation of health to community activity. In this chapter we shall try to discover what this relationship is.

Problems for you to investigate

OUR WATER SUPPLY

In this chapter you will learn that your own health and the health of your community depend upon an adequate supply of pure water. The aim of this study is to discover the exact way in which your government helps you and your community to obtain this necessity.

I. Our domestic water supply.

- A. Is water for use in your home supplied by an irrigation district, by your own private well, by a special company, or by your city?
- B. If supplied by an irrigation district, a special company, or by your city, appoint a committee of your class to correspond with or to interview officials and to obtain the following:
 1. A map showing the source of supply, reservoirs, main distribution lines, and branch lines leading to your home.
 2. If no map is available, get as much information as you can in the form of reports and circulars. Then transfer this information to a map.

3. Reports or statements showing what per cent of the total supply is used for:
 - a. Industry.
 - b. Care of parks.
 - c. Sprinkling streets.
 - d. Fire department.
 - e. Domestic purposes.
 - f. Other purposes.

Who pays for the water used for each purpose?

In what way?

- C. Appoint another committee to correspond with or to interview officials of your local health department. Try to obtain the following:
 1. Reports, circulars, or verbal statements as to the precautions taken to guard against the pollution of the source of your water supply, of the water stored in reservoirs, and *en route* to your home.
 2. Information about chemical tests of water supplied to the homes of your community.
 3. Statistics as to typhoid fever in your town or county. What relation is there between water supply and typhoid fever?
 4. Methods by which the health authorities of your state coöperate with your local officials.
 5. If possible arrange for some member of your local health department to speak to your class.

II. Disposal of sewage from your household.

1. If your home is connected with the sewers of your community, draw a map showing the location of the sewer pipes on your lot.
2. If your home is not connected with any sewers, what are you doing to dispose of sewage? Has any one in your family ever had typhoid fever? Do you think your method of disposal is a good one? Why, or why not?
3. From your local board of health get maps of your city or town showing the location of the main sewers. Where is the sewage discharged? What method of disposal is used? Is this method satisfactory? Why, or why not?
4. If possible arrange for an excursion of your class to see how this work is done.

5. Does the disposal of your sewage make the problem of water supply more difficult for some other community? If so, how? If so, is your community showing good citizenship? Why?

1. Vigorous health is the foundation of good citizenship.

In your study of your family group you learned that every member of the family has definite responsibilities. For



INTERIOR OF A DISPENSARY FOR THE TREATMENT OF INJURIES AND SICKNESS

This equipment enables workers to secure immediate medical aid and consequently to return to their work at the earliest possible date. (*Courtesy of Bethlehem Steel Company.*)

example, the father supports the mother and children. But investigations of the United States Public Health Service show that wage-earners on the average each lose six to nine days a year on account of sickness. Sickness entails not only this loss of wages, but doctors' bills, druggists' bills, nurses' bills, and hospital bills. Families are sometimes reduced to absolute want by the ravages of disease and become dependent upon the community for support. No father who

permits his family to become a burden to the community through avoidable illness is a good citizen. Good citizenship demands that every member of the group shall do all in his power to support himself and those dependent upon him.

Disease also affects the nation's industries. If every wage-earner loses the average number of days calculated by the Public Health Service, the total involves a great loss to our industries, because every industry must keep in its employ extra workers to take the places of those who are absent. Frequently it is very difficult to find temporary substitutes for skilled men, and less skillful workers are employed. In that case the industry is deprived not only of the work of the skilled mechanic but also of the material that is frequently spoiled by the inefficient workmen. In this manner the cost of living is increased because these losses due to illness — estimated at nearly a billion dollars annually — must be made up by charging the consumer an increased price for food, clothing, and other articles. Even fees for personal service must be increased because necessities of life cost more. Thus there is at least a portion of the cost of every human activity that can be eliminated by avoiding illness. No good citizen willingly makes the cost of living any higher than it is now.

The greatest loss to the community from disease, however, is the individual's loss of the joy of living. Unlike the happy, joyous, kindly, helpful, and obliging healthy citizen who endures the many small inconveniences due to mending pavements and laying new car tracks, the diseased are frequently disgruntled and do much to discourage those men who are working with all their energy to make their city a better place in which to live.

1. What is the relation of health to progress in school?
2. Why do public employees, like policemen, firemen, and teachers, have to take physical examinations?

2. The good citizen develops good health habits.

It is common knowledge that a person has more energy

and can accomplish more when in good health than when depressed by some disease. It is within the power of almost every boy and girl to develop those health habits that will help to make him a strong and useful citizen. He can exercise care in keeping all parts of his body clean; he can learn to eat the proper amounts of food at the proper times; he can take



HUMBOLDT PARK, CHICAGO

The community which preserves and develops beautiful spots makes outdoor recreation accessible to its members. (*Courtesy of Chicago Boosters' Publicity Club.*)

regular outdoor exercise and recreation; he can have regular hours for work and for sleep; and he can cultivate many other personal habits which will, if continued, give him life-long physical beauty and vigor. To be considered a good citizen a boy or a girl must accept the responsibility of building and preserving a strong body.

In hospitals the nurses keep charts to show the progress of each patient. Keep a health chart for yourself for one week. Arrange this chart so as to show time of meals, amounts and kinds of food, exercise, sleep, bathing, and care of teeth. At the end of the week criticize your own habits.

3. The individual promotes his own health by coöperation with the members of his community.

In pioneer communities where there is plenty of space and the people live some distance apart, a family may safeguard the health of all its members by strict attention to personal hygiene; but as soon as a community is settled, other measures must be adopted. Some of the people in towns are careful about the sanitation around their houses, while others seem to have no knowledge of the dangers lurking in open garbage cans, outdoor toilets, open sewers, and primitive wells. From such sources as these arise epidemics if the germs of contagious disease happen to be present. In order to protect all the members of the community against the carelessness and ignorance of a few, the people of our towns, cities, counties, states, and the nation have organized health departments.

As a general rule, the activities of a city or town health department may be divided into two groups: first, those activities which deal with sanitation and the prevention of disease, and second, those activities which isolate disease. By far the larger part of the work deals with prevention.

1. It is frequently said that one of the most important functions of modern government is the care of the public health. Do you agree? Why?
2. Is it a good policy of a health department to devote most of its time to sanitation? Why?

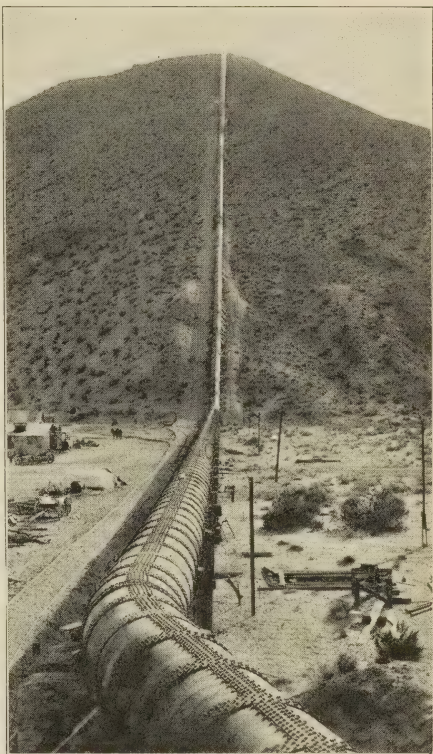
4. Pure and abundant water is essential to community health.

One of the most serious public health problems in American cities is obtaining sufficient pure water for industrial and domestic needs. Many communities have drilled deep wells, and as population has increased, have added new wells. However, most of the large cities in our country have found that this source of supply is inadequate, and they have been forced to seek other sources. New York City derives most of its water from the Catskill Mountains. Chicago has constructed in-takes in Lake Michigan, some of which are as far

as five miles from the shore, and has expended millions of dollars building the Drainage Canal through which the city's sewage is drained into the Illinois River. Chicago was forced to make this huge expenditure of public money because of the frequent epidemics of disease which occurred when her sewage was drained into Lake Michigan. Los Angeles City has built an aqueduct over two hundred and fifty miles long to convey water to her people from the Owens River in the high Sierra Nevada Mountains. But the population of these cities is increasing so rapidly that even these expensive systems of supplying water are likely to prove inadequate within the next fifty years.

Why do cities need to make such expensive and extensive provisions for water? First, the supply must be large enough to meet the

needs of the fire department, the bureau of streets, the sewage system, and the public parks. Then, factories, laundries, railroads, and other industries make huge drains on the community's reservoirs. For these purposes the supply must



LOS ANGELES MUNICIPAL AQUEDUCT

This aqueduct is the longest in the world. It is built across two hundred and fifty miles of mountain and desert from the Central Sierras to Los Angeles. It holds ten times as much water as the famous Roman aqueduct. (Courtesy of Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce.)

be large but not necessarily pure. Only a small percentage of the total water supply is used for human consumption; but this part *must* be pure. In most places all the water supplied for all purposes is fit for human use; but in some cities where an adequate supply of pure water is not available, parallel water systems have been constructed, one for general use carrying unfiltered water and one for human consumption carrying water that has been carefully filtered and tested.



ONE OF THE RESERVOIRS IN BOSTON'S SYSTEM OF WATER SUPPLY

Several acres of neighboring land serve all the purposes of a public park. (*Courtesy of Metropolitan Water and Sewage Board.*)

Modern science has taught many valuable lessons in regard to the danger of drinking contaminated water. We now know that typhoid fever, the scourge of many centuries, is traceable to contaminated water. According to recent statistics there are about four hundred thousand cases of typhoid in the United States annually, and of these about one in fifteen is fatal. Practically all of this disease can be eradicated by rigorous attention to the purification of the community's

water supply. Bacteriologists in the health departments in large cities analyze the water daily to see if it contains disease germs. Whenever these germs are discovered notices are sent to the people to boil water before using it in order to destroy any living organisms; meanwhile, the water is treated chemically at its source, and in a few days is again fit for use.

1. Sanitary engineers often use the number of cases of typhoid fever as an index when comparing the healthfulness of cities. Why?
 2. In what ways is the expense resulting from the use of large amounts of water for sprinkling lawns justifiable?
 3. Are rural or urban communities more liable to epidemics of typhoid fever? Why?
 4. Draw a map of some farmyard with which you are familiar. Show the position of the stables, the barnyard, the washtubs, the hogpens, the house, and the well. Is this well protected from contamination? Why?
5. **Communities are making it possible for their citizens to enjoy pure air.**

Like impure water, impure air is a source of ill health. It decreases vitality and paves the way for colds, influenza, and tuberculosis. To protect citizens against these dangers our towns and cities have strict regulations for the ventilation of public buildings. Also,

the smoke nuisance is being eliminated by applying scientific methods of causing complete combustion of fuel used in in-



COUNTRY HOME OF A SUCCESSFUL
BUSINESS MAN

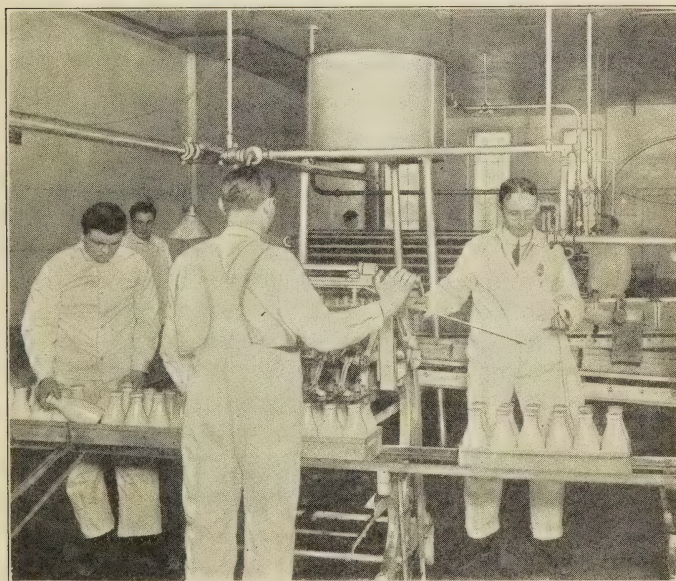
Electricity, the automobile, good roads, and a desire for privacy and fresh air are inducing many successful business men to build country homes.

dustrial plants and by the electrification of many of our railroads within city limits. Our streets are flushed with water and swept with dustless sweepers. In crowded communities parks and playgrounds are being established to afford opportunity for old and young to obtain recreation in the open air. To an ever-increasing extent people are building their homes in the suburbs of our cities, far from the dust of busy thoroughfares. All these activities show that we have come to believe that pure air and opportunities to enjoy the out-of-doors are among the most precious of a community's assets.

1. Has your community done anything to decrease the amount of smoke from its industries? If so, what?
2. Is there a ventilating system in your school building? If so, invite the engineer in charge to explain it to your class.
3. From books in your library find out about the different types of ventilation systems now in use in public buildings. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each type?

6. Food inspection protects the community against impure food.

For many centuries the high death rate among infants and small children was taken as a matter of course. We now know that a large part of this mortality is due to ignorance and carelessness. Physicians, nurses, the Red Cross, social settlements, and the public schools are educating parents and those who will become parents to use scientific methods in the care and feeding of children. Emphasis is placed on pure food, especially pure milk. Milk inspection is one of the most important activities of a health department, because milk is the food of the weakest members of the community, babies and invalids. So important is pure milk that the medical associations of some counties organize special milk commissions whose duty it is to supervise carefully every step in production and to certify the milk that has been produced in strict accordance with the regulations. Milk certified by such organizations is obtained from healthy cows kept in sanitary



HOW THE CITY INSPECTS OUR MILK

The city milk inspector testing can-delivered milk as it comes into the city in the early morning, and the bottling room of a sanitary dairy.

stables free from dust, dirt, and flies, and is handled by careful people in perfect health. This milk is a safe food for small children. Milk inspection has done more than any other activity of the community to protect child life.

Just as a great deal of infant mortality and infant disease is traceable to impure milk, so also a great deal of illness among older people is due to other contaminated foods. Berries and green vegetables irrigated with water in which there is sewage are unfit for human consumption. Not many years ago meat from tubercular hogs and cattle was sold to the public; but now all meat is inspected by officials from the Department of Agriculture at Washington whose duty it is to condemn all diseased animals. Retail butchers are compelled by local ordinances to display their cuts of meat in glass cases in order to keep away disease-carrying flies and to prevent careless customers from handling possible purchases. In some cities inspectors from the department of health visit the markets and restaurants at irregular intervals, grade them for sanitation and cleanliness, and publish their findings in the local newspapers. Work of this kind advertises the clean stores, puts a stigma on the careless proprietors, and educates the public in good health habits.

1. Visit your corner grocery. Make a list of all the methods used in that store to keep food clean and sanitary.
2. What is the difference between pasteurized milk and raw milk? What is certified milk? Who is the milk inspector in your community? Appoint a committee of your class to invite him to tell you about his work.
3. Are there any dairy farms in your community? If so, what precautions are taken to secure clean milk?
4. Why are flies dangerous? What can you do to exterminate flies in your home? In your school? In your community?

7. Garbage and sewage are a menace to public health.

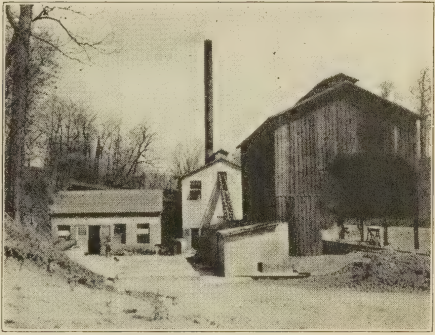
Disease germs are microscopic plants and animals which feed upon organic substances and increase in number very

rapidly. Since garbage and sewage are largely organic material, they are excellent media in which germs can live and multiply. When in some way the germs of disease gain entrance into the human body, they attack its cells and give off waste materials which poison us, different disease germs affecting us in different ways. It is because we never know when these destructive disease germs are present in organic wastes that we must exercise great precaution in our methods for disposing of garbage and sewage.

Unless it makes adequate provision for the disposal of these potentially dangerous wastes, no community can have pure water, pure air, or pure food. In small communities people can feed much of their garbage to hogs

and chickens, if it is fresh, or they can bury it in the garden plot, where, if left for some time, it decomposes and becomes an enriching part of the soil. When the community is too closely settled to permit individuals to make their own plans for garbage disposal, the town health department usually makes provisions for this work.

The problem of garbage disposal is among the most difficult questions facing our towns and cities. One method is through the operation of reduction plants in which chemical processes are employed to extract greases useful in the manufacture of soap and other elements valuable as ingredients of commercial fertilizers. This method is often economical, especially in large cities, for the extracted products may pay a large part of the cost of reduction. Another method in general use is



GARBAGE REDUCTION PLANT IN DAYTON, OHIO
The sale of grease and fertilizer more than pays the expense of garbage disposal. (Courtesy of City Manager of Dayton.)

burning garbage in incinerators. Other places use their garbage to fatten hogs, while still others plough it into the soil. The important points about garbage disposal are:

1. Keep all cans covered before they are collected to keep out flies.
2. See that cans are emptied every few days.
3. Be sure that garbage is so treated that it will not contaminate your water supply.

The disposal of sewage is a problem even more difficult than garbage disposal because sewage contains human wastes which are more likely to be contaminated with disease germs. The problem is fraught with more difficulty, too, because the volume is large, especially in the rainy season. A few communities have parallel sewage systems, one for carrying off the waste from the kitchen, laundry, and bathroom, and the other for carrying off the surplus rain water from the surface. The latter can be discharged at any convenient place without serious menace to public health because it contains no impurities other than those already in the air or on the surface of the streets or land. The smaller and more regular quantity from the homes is purified by special processes and then discharged. Although this parallel system reduces the cost of purifying, the double equipment of pipes makes the initial cost large. Because of this heavy initial expense communities usually allow all the sewage to go through the same pipes. Sometimes it flows into rivers or lakes whose water it makes unfit for drinking. The fortunate towns near the ocean discharge their sewage into the salt water. Some inland cities use it to irrigate special farms, on which certain kinds of food may be raised. At present it is very difficult for the average citizen to know what plan of disposal is best for his community, for this problem is puzzling our greatest scientists and sanitary engineers. Probably the best course for a town to pursue is to call in a specialist to study the problem and then to follow his advice.

1. How does your family dispose of garbage when at home? When you go camping? What do farmers usually do with garbage?
2. What becomes of the garbage of the largest city near your home? Appoint a committee to write to the head of the health department for this information.
3. What becomes of the sewage from your home? Is it contaminating the water supply of any other community?
4. What is the relation of climate to garbage disposal? To sewage disposal?
5. Read books, encyclopædia articles, and pamphlets on the methods of garbage disposal. List advantages and disadvantages of each method.

8. Health departments are working to prevent the spread of communicable diseases.

In spite of all we have learned about preventing disease, none of our communities has succeeded in eradicating it. When disease comes the best we can do is to prevent it from being communicated to other persons. The health departments of nearly all towns and cities require physicians to report all cases of diseases such as typhoid, smallpox, scarlet fever, influenza, pneumonia, diphtheria, measles, whooping cough, and mumps. This information enables them to take the proper precautionary steps to prevent epidemics. Most health departments placard the patient's home and thus establish a quarantine. In cases of smallpox and leprosy patients are usually removed to an isolation hospital.

1. What diseases does your health department quarantine? What are the quarantine regulations?
2. Is it good citizenship to break over quarantine regulations? Why?
3. How does quarantine show our dependence upon one another? Illustrate from your own experiences and those of your friends.

9. Our state and national governments are conserving human life.

For many years we, as a people, did very little to guard human life against the enemies of health. We permitted our children to work long hours in poorly lighted and poorly ventilated factories. We did not take the trouble to provide seats for women workers in stores. We were so occupied with the business of conquering the wilderness that we expended little energy providing for the health of our people. We were developing the material wealth of the nation at the expense of our own physical well-being.

Recently we have been undergoing a great change, and now several of the bureaus of our national government at Washington are maintained at considerable expense for the great task of conserving human life. The Children's Bureau is promoting the welfare of children among all classes of our nation. Through the work of the Bureau of Mines safety devices have been introduced to protect miners at work. Our Public Health Service is preventing people with contagious diseases from entering our country, is investigating the means of controlling disease, and is issuing reports of great value to our citizens. The Department of Agriculture is teaching farmers' wives lessons in the preservation, preparation, and care of food on the farm. The Women's Bureau is improving working conditions for women employed in our industries. The Veterans' Welfare Bureau is assisting disabled soldiers to regain their health and meanwhile to equip themselves for work in some useful occupation which will make them self-supporting. The Department of Agriculture is also helping our local communities to exterminate flies and other disease-carrying pests, is inspecting meat and dairy products, and is administering the Food and Drugs Act passed for the purpose of securing to the people pure foods properly labeled. Later in your course you will learn more about these and other activities of your national government. This work is mentioned now that you may realize the great interest of our national government in conserving human life.

Our state governments are also protecting our health rights through state boards of health. In some states we find a Department of Labor in which there are commissions dealing with accidents in industry and with the housing, education, and employment of newly arrived immigrants. These commissions work for the weaker members of the community. In nearly every state special laws have been passed which compel school districts to teach hygiene and to give physical training to their pupils. These and other laws encourage the preservation of health and the full development of the physical vitality of our citizens.

1. Does a citizen do his full duty to his community when he waits for his state government to pass laws requiring him to put safety devices on dangerous machinery? Why?
2. Most states have laws requiring fire drills in schools. How do these laws conserve human life?
3. How do laws regulating child labor help the community?
4. Is it right to spend state money on conserving the energies of newly arrived immigrants? Why, or why not?
5. What is the purpose of speed laws for motor vehicles?

10. Our best highly trained physicians are engaged in promoting the community's health.

On our city and county boards of health, in our state health departments, and in the United States Public Health Service we find physicians working directly for the promotion of public health. Through this public health service, through the application of new discoveries in the cause and cure of disease, through the enforcement of health laws, and through the increased knowledge and development of health habits, the average life span in the United States has been increased from thirty-one to forty years within four decades. We no longer fear plagues which once filled whole continents with lamentation. The causes and control of leprosy, the black death, bubonic plague, smallpox, yellow fever, sleeping sickness, tuberculosis, and many other infectious diseases are

now understood. Preventive measures for their control have been adopted by federal, state, and local boards of health; but effective control depends largely upon the intelligent preventive action of all the members of every community. It is because of the physicians' realization of the need of this combined individual and governmental action that they, individually, and through their professional organizations, and through other organizations, have urged our schools to teach sanitation and hygiene to school children. Their active effort in the field of health education has been the means of elevating the health standards of our nation.

To most of us the physician is not so much the man engaged in large scale community work as the doctor who comes to us in times of serious illness. His studious mind and years of training give us the benefit of recent discoveries in the treatment of our affliction, while his cheerful personality inspires us with a new desire to return to our daily tasks. During epidemics he labors night and day for the alleviation of suffering. He risks his own health and his own life that others may have health and life. Frequently he spends hours on errands of mercy in the homes of the poor, receiving for pay only the knowledge of suffering alleviated, of pain diminished, and of human beings brought back to health.

1. Who was Colonel Gorgas? Ask your librarian to help you find references to his work in exterminating yellow fever in the Panama Canal Zone.
2. In what ways is a physician serving his community when he cures those who are ill?
3. Does a physician's work appeal to you? If you should decide to become a physician, how much education will you need? How long will it be before you can obtain your state license to practice?
4. In what ways is the work of a nurse similar to that of a doctor? Is there a visiting nurse who comes to the homes of your schoolmates when they are ill? If so, ask her to tell your class about her work.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Hughes, *Elementary Community Civics*. (Allyn & Bacon.)
Chap. II — "Guarding the People's Health."
2. Dunn, *Community Civics for City Schools*. (Heath.)
Chap. XI — "The Community's Health."
3. Reed, *Loyal Citizenship*. (World Book Co.)
Chap. XXI — "Preservation of Health."
4. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
Lesson C-19 — "How the City Cares for Health."
Lesson C-32 — "Housing for Workers."
Lesson B-4 — "Feeding a City."
Lesson B-14 — "The United States Public Health Service."
Lesson C-8 — "Preventing Waste of Human Beings."
5. Hill, *Community Life and Civic Problems*. (Ginn.)
Chap. VII — "The Health of the Community."
6. Addams, *Twenty Years at Hull House*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. XIII — "Public Activities and Investigations."
It shows us what a mighty force energetic citizens may exercise in gaining better health conditions in their own neighborhoods.
7. Connor, *The Doctor*. (Revell.)
8. *Literary Digest*, July 24, 1920, p. 50, "General William C. Gorgas, Wholesale Saver of Human Lives."
This brief article gives a sketch of the life of General Gorgas with special emphasis on his work in the Canal Zone.
9. *Review of Reviews*, February, 1922, p. 188, "Gorgas, Redeemer of the Tropics."
10. Bullard, *Panama*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. XXXI — "Pulling the Teeth of the Tropics."
It is an interesting account of the methods employed to combat mosquitoes in the tropics.
11. Du Puy, *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*. (Stokes.)
Chap. XVII — "Teaching Sanitation to the World."

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Munro and Ozanne, *Social Civics*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. XXVI — "Public Health and Sanitation."
This chapter gives a good discussion of the basic problems involved.
2. Towne, *Social Problems*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. XVII — "Conservation of Human Life."
3. Reed, *Form and Functions of American Government*. (World Book Co.)
Chap. XXXII — "The Regulation of Public Health."
4. Hutchinson, *Civilization and Health*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
This book is made up of chapters on various health topics that are presented in an unusually interesting way.
5. Hutchinson, *The Doctor in War*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
This book presents in popular language what modern science can do for the protection of the health and life of an army or a nation.

6. Publications of the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

The teacher should consult the index of the publications of this Department and select the bulletins most fitting for the local community.

7. Publications of the Public Health Service.

The teacher should inspect the files in the local library, and select for the class those publications of greatest interest to the local community. The *Public Health Almanac* for the current year will be worth careful study, and can be made the basis of reports.

8. Zueblin, *American Municipal Progress*. (Macmillan.)

Chap. v — "The City's Wastes."

Chap. vi — "Water and Sewage."

Chap. vii — "Public Health."

These chapters give illuminating details of the means which various communities are employing to solve their health problems.

CHAPTER IX

RECREATION IN THE COMMUNITY

CLOSELY connected with the problems of conserving the health of our people, of protecting them against crime, of stimulating noble living, and of advancing educational ideals is the problem of wholesome recreation. In the following pages we shall discover what wholesome recreation is, who needs recreation, and what our community is doing to supply the demands made upon it.

Problems for you to investigate

RECREATION IN OUR NEIGHBORHOOD

- I. Make a map of your neighborhood showing:
 1. Parks.
 2. Playgrounds for children.
 3. Tennis courts, baseball fields, etc.
 4. Theaters.
 5. Gymnasiums, swimming pools, etc., owned privately and run for profit.
 6. Public schools open evenings to adults for recreational purposes.
 7. Young Men's Christian Association building, Young Men's Hebrew Association building, Knights of Columbus hall, American Legion hall, athletic associations, etc.
 8. Churches with facilities for recreation.
 9. Libraries.
 10. Other places used for recreational purposes.
- II.
 1. What type of recreation brings the families of the neighborhood into coöperation?
 2. What kind of recreation do you consider of greatest value to the community? Why? What kind is of greatest value to the individual? Why?

3. To what extent do the children of your neighborhood use the playgrounds? What are the dangers of playing in the streets? On vacant lots? What are the benefits to be gained from playing games under supervision?
4. To what extent do the people use the parks? What forms of recreation do the parks provide? Are the people satisfied with the attractions which the parks offer? How do you know? How can parks be made a means of uniting the members of the community? Are your parks being used for this purpose?

III.

1. In what ways are the people of your community working together to provide better means of recreation for all? Is work of this kind done better through individual effort or by coöperation through governmental agencies? Why?
2. In what ways can you help to secure better recreation for yourself and your community?

1. Workers need recreation to relieve the strain necessarily associated with the highly specialized activities of modern life.

One of the most marked characteristics of work in our modern world is specialization in almost every field of human endeavor. For example, watches are now manufactured with the aid of very complicated machines run by skillful workmen. One man using one of these machines can make 1200 fine screws in a single day, some of which are so fine that 100,000 are required to weigh a pound. Day after day the man makes screws. Possibly he does not know what their purpose is, or what fellow workman will use them.

Out of this narrowly specialized life workers come weary in mind and body. Professional men are fatigued by their mental efforts and by their confinement in offices, laboratories, court-rooms, and hospitals, while factory workers are nervous and depressed by the endless monotony of uninteresting tasks performed amid the noise of whirring machinery. No longer does the worker enjoy the relaxation that comes with frequent change of work throughout the day. In order to re-create

the mental and physical energy consumed in the day's work both public and private agencies in our communities are providing various forms of activity.



VOLUNTEER PARK — ONE OF THE FORTY-FOUR PUBLIC PLAYGROUNDS
IN SEATTLE

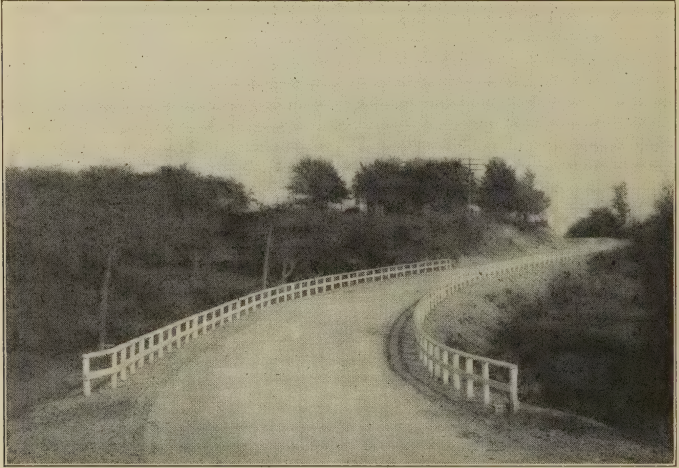
Few private citizens can afford a place of recreation as spacious as this park.

1. Does the shortening of the factory worker's day to eight hours increase or decrease his demand for recreation? Why?
2. Do you need relaxation when your school is dismissed? Why, or why not? Compare your need with that of a surgeon, of a lawyer, of a teamster, of your mother.

2. Wholesome recreation refreshes mind and body.

Before your vacation during Christmas week you plan your activities eagerly. Some of you intend to spend your vacation skating and tobogganing in the public parks, others are scanning the card catalogues in the library with a view to spending their vacation in the world of books, others are

planning visits to relatives and friends, while still others are anticipating the joy of installing a wireless receiving station, or putting their favorite collection of stamps in order. In the change from your everyday routine to these less exacting occupations you will find refreshment.



A HIGHWAY IN NEW YORK

Good roads which connect the crowded city with the open country assist us to enjoy frequent outings. (Courtesy of Bureau of Roads, Washington, D.C.)

Sometimes people go into hazardous places in quest of relaxation. For example, the public poolroom with its atmosphere of tobacco smoke and its temptations to vulgar language refreshes neither the mind nor the body. Similarly, the public dance hall makes boys and girls acquainted with men, women, and other young people who are incapable of inspiring them with the desire to contribute valuable work to their community. Also, some boys and girls spend too much of their leisure in the motion-picture theaters. Although some reels are prepared to educate the spectators in the life and habits of peoples in far-away lands, in current events, and in scientific progress, a large part of almost every show consists of

pictures whose sole object is to bring momentary pleasure. Incidentally those who use their eyes continually in their day's work should not too frequently subject themselves to further visual strain in an attempt to relax their minds.

What recreation *is* wholesome? In general the worth of recreation may be judged by one's feeling on succeeding days.



GYMNASTICS

Daily drill helps boys to develop healthy minds in healthy bodies. (*Courtesy of Bethlehem Steel Company.*)

If the concert, or theater, or visit with friends, or dance, or tennis game, or book, or fishing trip, or hike in the country, or picnic in the park helps us to relax our tired minds and bodies, and if it strengthens our will to do our work better, to contribute more to the life of our community, and to lead nobler lives, then we may be sure our chosen form of recreation is wholesome.

1. What workers have the greatest need of outdoor recreation? Why?
2. Which do you think you would enjoy most, a vacation near some beautiful lakes with a few intimate friends, or a stay at a popular summer resort where there are lectures, shows, concerts, and dancing parties? Why?

3. Are any members of your class Boy Scouts? If so, ask them to tell you about Scouting, how to gain membership, and what service the organization performs for our boys, our local communities, and our nation. Do the same for Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, or other similar organizations.
4. It has been said that every boy and girl should belong to some good club. Do you agree? Do you belong to a club? If not, can you help to organize one?

3. Training for the profitable use of leisure time is one of the principal aims of modern education.

Our schools are devoting more effort to training their pupils in the right use of leisure than schools have ever devoted before. The reason for this increased emphasis is that we have learned that play-activities in leisure time are educational. Just as the kitten's first lessons in hunting mice are play with fluttering leaves, so many of our first lessons in important life occupations are inculcated by play. For example, our manual training shops are teaching our boys how to make valuable use of their leisure time. Many a boy makes a library table for his mother in his class at school, and in his leisure makes tables for his little sister's doll house. When sister bakes a successful batch of cookies at school she is likely to utilize a vacant hour at home to show her family what good cookies she can make. These activities together with our athletic sports and games, our clubs and societies, are utilizing our desire for play and are thus developing qualities which every good citizen must acquire, namely, self-control, endurance, courage, loyalty, sportsmanship, honesty, and coöperation. In our classes in geography and history we learn of ways of living in other times and other places. If we are gifted with curiosity, we obtain books on travel and biography from our librarian. Then, in our leisure we can travel with Roosevelt into Central Africa, with Peary to the North Pole, with John Muir in the Rockies, and with Stevenson on his delightful journeys. Another source of joyous leisure promoted by our schools is good music. Since many of our schools are giving

talented pupils private instruction in vocal and instrumental work, and are training our boys and girls to appreciate various types of musical composition, our community life will be enriched by the inspiration which music affords. In these

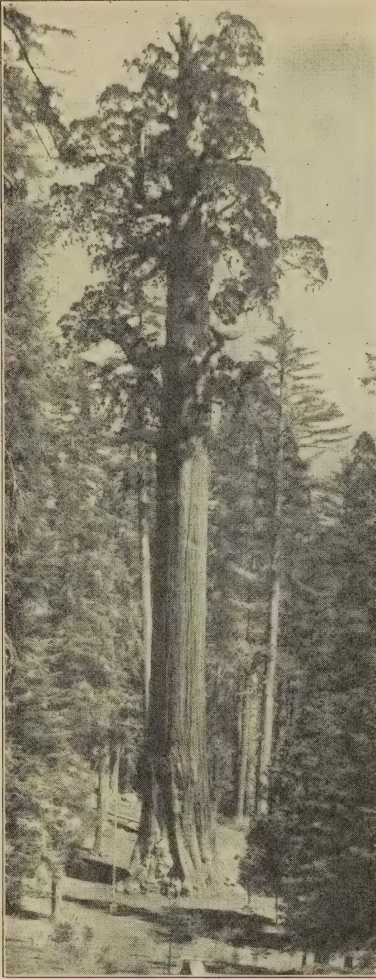


FRESNO SYMPHONY ORCHESTRA

This orchestra is a splendid example of the satisfaction of man's needs in his community life. These professional musicians formed this organization under the auspices of the evening schools, and for two seasons gave free concerts to large audiences. They gained for themselves companionship, recreation, and knowledge, and they furnished valuable recreation to the community. (*Courtesy of Earl Towner, Director.*)

ways — through training pupils to perform interesting tasks, to read widely, to take part in athletics and club life, and to foster worth-while music — our schools are training for leisure time as schools have never trained before.

1. Draw up a schedule showing amounts of time you give daily to sleep, meals, class work, outside work, and recreation. Subdivide your recreation time to show exactly how it is spent.
2. How much of your time is spent doing nothing? How much in reading books and magazines? How much in athletic sports and games? In some hobby?



“GENERAL GRANT”

This tree, named after the famous Civil War hero and former President of the United States, is one of the oldest trees in the world. It is located in General Grant National Park in the High Sierras. This park has been set aside by the federal government as a place of recreation for all the people of the nation. (Courtesy of Fresno County Chamber of Commerce.)

3. Make lists showing what benefits you derive from each kind of recreation in which you participate.
 4. Is your school training you for leisure time in ways other than those mentioned here?
4. **By coöperation through governmental and private agencies we are increasing our opportunities for recreation.**

Your studies of the recreational facilities in your neighborhood have indicated to you what a large number of agencies are endeavoring to make wholesome recreation available for all our citizens. In addition our county and state governments are establishing forest reserves, are maintaining parks at places of historical interest, and they are building good roads to make them easily accessible.

By far the largest acreage devoted to recreation is our system of national parks. A little over fifty years ago Congress set aside Yellowstone Park “for the benefit and enjoyment of all the people.” Thus the first

national park in the world was established. Since that time seventeen additional scenic areas have been made national parks, fifteen in continental United States, one in Alaska, and one in the Hawaiian Islands. Every year a million or more people spend part of their vacations in these parks. Every American has just cause to be proud of his country for her foresight in reserving these wonderful parks for our education, recreation, and enjoyment.

1. Have you ever visited any of our national parks? If so, describe some of its attractions to the class.
2. Are there any forest reserves in your county? If so, locate them on a map of your county.
3. What places of historic interest are there in your state? Have parks been established? Have you ever visited them?

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Dunn, *Community Civics and Rural Life*. (Heath.)
 Chap. XXI — "Social, Æsthetic, and Spiritual Wants."
 The first section of this chapter shows the need for recreation in rural communities.
2. Hill, *Community Life and Civic Problems*. (Ginn.)
 Chap. x — "Recreation."
 Emphasis is placed mainly on recreation provided by cities.
3. Hughes, *Elementary Community Civics*. (Allyn & Bacon.)
 Chap. v — "Providing Recreation."
4. U.S. Department of the Interior — National Park Bulletins.
5. Addams, *Twenty Years at Hull House*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. xv — "The Value of Social Clubs."
 Chap. xvi — "Arts at Hull House."
6. Coale, *Summer in the Girls' Camp*. (Century Co.)
 Chap. II — "Going to Camp."
 Chap. IV — "Camp Activities — Sports."
 Chap. V — "Camp Activities — Crafts."
 Chap. VI — "Camp Activities — Trips."
7. Fowler, *Starting in Life*. (Little, Brown & Co.)
 Pages 129-149 — "The Stage."
 Pages 190-203 — "The Musician."
8. Kermit Roosevelt, *The Happy Hunting Grounds*. (Scribner's.)
 The book is a series of stories of splendid hunting trips, some of which were in company with the author's illustrious father.
9. Paine, *The Tent Dwellers*. (Harper's.)
 The book tells of an adventurous fishing trip into the remote wilderness of Nova Scotia's network of streams and lakes.

10. Heilner and Stick, *The Call of the Surf*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)
It tells of surf-fishing along the Atlantic Coast. Any boy or girl who enjoys bathing or boating in the surf will revel in these tales of surf-fishing.
11. Roosevelt, *A Book-Lover's Holidays in the Open*. (Scribner's.)
Chap. I — "A Cougar Hunt on the Rim of the Grand Canyon."
Chap. II — "Across the Navajo Desert."
Chap. IX — "Books for Holidays in the Open."

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Zueblin, *American Municipal Progress*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. XVI — "Recreation."
This chapter gives details of the recreation facilities provided by some of our larger cities, especially New York, Boston, and Chicago.
2. Bobbitt, *The Curriculum*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
Chap. I — "Two Levels of Educational Experience."
Chap. II — "Educational Experience upon the Play Level."
Chap. III — "Educational Experience upon the Work Level."
These three chapters show clearly the intimate relationship between work and play in the education of our children.
3. American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 67, *New Possibilities in Education*.
Part I-D — Johnson, "Play and Recreation."
Part I-D — Becht, "Training Children to a Wise Use of Their Leisure."
4. Hartt, *The People at Play*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
Chap. II — "The Amusement Park."
Chap. III — "The World in Motion."
These two chapters bring to us the fun and philosophy of the amusement park and the movies. The illustrations are remarkably clever.
5. Curtis, *The Play Movement and Its Significance*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. III — "Play at the School."
Chap. IV — "Municipal Playgrounds."
Chap. V — "Public Recreation."
Chap. VIII — "Play in the Country."
These chapters bring together materials from numerous communities which give exceptional opportunities to their children and adults. They also embody the outlook of one who has had wide experience in organizing play.

CHAPTER X

THE LESS FORTUNATE MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNITY

EVERY community has members who, because of physical, mental, or moral weakness, or through disability from other causes to earn money, are unable to coöperate with their fellow-citizens in the tasks of promoting education, religion, health, safety, and recreation. Because they are not self-supporting and do not usually contribute to the improvement of the community, they are a burden upon the shoulders of the self-supporting, intelligent citizens. The purpose of this chapter is to discover in what ways good citizens are coöperating in bearing this burden and in reducing its size.

Problems for you to investigate

THE WORK OF OUR GOVERNMENT FOR OUR LESS FORTUNATE CHILDREN

- I. Our local government conducts activities in:
 - A. Education. When we were studying our school system we learned that special classes and schools are organized for special groups of children. Review briefly what your local community is doing to increase the power of self-support through the education of:
 1. Blind children.
 2. The deaf and deaf-mutes.
 3. The crippled.
 4. The truant.
 5. The tubercular.
 - B. Relief and prevention of poverty. When families with small children find themselves temporarily unable to provide themselves with food, clothing, and shelter, they can gain assistance from private philanthropic societies and from welfare departments of the town, city, or county government. Get reports of your local

welfare department and study them with a view to discovering:

1. Methods of conducting the work.
 - a. Is the family visited and are reasons for its present need investigated before aid is given? If so, who does this, and what are the principal reasons why people in your community seek temporary help?
 - b. Is the family assisted to regain its independence by removing the immediate cause of the distress? For example, does your welfare department help unemployed fathers of families to obtain and hold positions? Get all the examples you can of work along this line.
 - c. Is the life of the families who are assisted by the welfare department supervised with the idea of teaching the mother better ways of managing the household?
 2. Scope of the work.
 - a. How much public money was spent in this way during the last year?
 - b. How many people were assisted?
 - c. How many officials were required to carry on this work?
 3. Appoint a committee of your class to interview or correspond with the head of your local welfare department with a view to having him or one of his assistants speak to your class.
- C. Cure of disease. In many communities there are special hospitals for children and special children's wards in general hospitals. Perhaps a committee of your class will be interested in taking toys, visiting, reading, or entertaining convalescents in these places. See what are the possibilities of this helpful work in your community.
- D. Prevention of crime. Most progressive communities are no longer content with arresting and punishing children who break our laws, but have established Juvenile Courts to assist youthful offenders to become

good citizens. Is there a Juvenile Court in your community? If so, by correspondence or interview arrange to have some official of the Court to tell your class about its efforts to prevent offending children from becoming criminals.

II. Our state government establishes and supports institutions for unfortunate children which local communities, working alone, cannot afford. Usually all these institutions are under the control of a state welfare board, or a board of charities and corrections. From its reports find out what work is being carried on in:

- A. State reform schools.
- B. State orphanages.
- C. State schools for the feeble-minded.
- D. State schools for other dependent children.

If the work of your state for its less fortunate children appeals to your feeling of sympathy, you may be able to coöperate with your state authorities by assisting to provide more happiness for the children in some orphanage near your home. Appoint a committee of your class to discuss plans for this work, to write to the proper authorities, to gain all available information, and to report their findings to you.

III. Our national government carries on a large part of its work for children through the Children's Bureau in the Department of Labor. Appoint a committee of your class to get its reports and to review its work.

I. Children and the aged become dependents upon the community when the family fails to meet its obligations.

In our study of the family we learned that the chief purposes of the family group are to care for children in their years of infancy and childhood, to teach them habits of industry, and to lay the foundations of good citizenship. Thus the children are enabled to become happy, useful, law-abiding citizens, able, in their turn, to assume the responsibilities of founding families of their own. The family under normal conditions also cares for the sick and the aged. After parents

have spent much thought and energy in rearing their children, it is only just and fitting that they should receive the love, care, and companionship of their children in their declining years. In an ideal community the children and the aged, the only natural dependents, are welcome members of family circles supported by adult workers in our industries and professions.

Sometimes the family is unable to withstand the strain of a succession of misfortunes. Then it becomes the business of the more fortunate members of the community to do all in their power to shoulder the burdens until such time as the family can resume them. Meanwhile, it may be necessary to augment the family's income, to give medical treatment, to instruct the mother in matters of hygiene and sanitation or to secure employment for those able to work. If none of these efforts to rehabilitate the family life succeed, its unity cannot be preserved. It is necessary to place the children in orphanages, or in private families, if possible; the aged are consigned to special institutions; and the parents are given the treatment their needs require. In our life together there is no misfortune more deplorable than the disruption of a family group, for it is a declaration that the family in question has failed to meet its responsibilities.

1. Have you ever visited a home for the aged? If so, describe your impressions to your class.
2. Get reports on orphanages. Find out how the time is spent by the children. What is being done to make them useful citizens?

2. Adults become dependent because they are handicapped in the "struggle for existence."

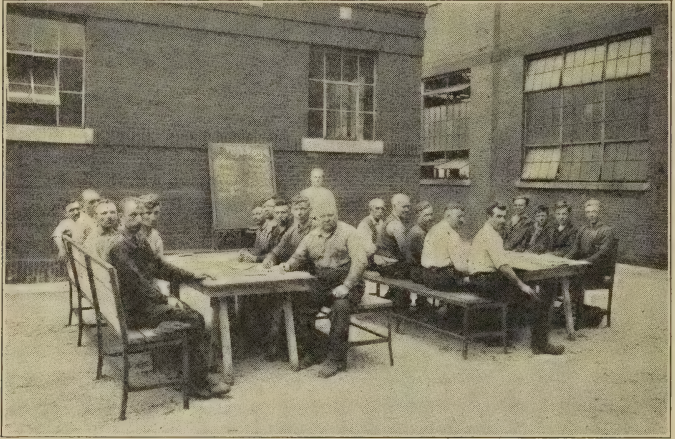
The "struggle for existence" has been in progress in the world of living things since the beginning of time and will doubtless continue as long as life continues, for this struggle to live is a part of life itself. Those human beings who are best adapted to the conditions under which we live are self-supporting; but when some unfortunate conditions or cir-

cumstances unfit an individual for bearing his own burdens, then the community lends a helping hand. Chief among the unfortunate conditions which make an individual dependent are:

a. Physical defects. The blind, the deaf, deaf-mutes, the paralytic, the crippled, all present special problems. However, progress along educational lines is opening ever-widening fields of usefulness for those who are physically handicapped. We are now able to teach the blind to read by running their fingers over raised letters. The blind also can follow occupations such as basketry, making brooms and wicker furniture, tuning pianos, etc. Deafness is not nearly so great a handicap as blindness because it does not eliminate as many kinds of activity. Though afflicted by deafness, thousands of Americans are achieving success in occupations varying from that of a carpenter to that of a university professor. Deaf-mutes present a harder problem because they have been deaf from birth and have never learned to talk. Therefore, they cannot be taught to read a person's conversation by watching the movements of his lips. However, deaf-mutes can learn occupations like painting, engraving, carpentry, cabinet-making, craftwork in precious metals, etc. The paralytic and crippled offer similar opportunities for training along appropriate lines. To an ever-increasing degree special schools are making these physically defective members of the community self-supporting, self-reliant citizens. Meanwhile, our increasing knowledge of the causes of physical defects is helping to reduce the number who need special education.

b. Mental defects. These defects may take the form of feeble-mindedness or insanity. A feeble-minded person has the body of an adult, but the mind of a child. An insane person has a fully developed mind which does not function normally. Many feeble-minded people, especially high-grade morons, are able to earn their livelihoods at routine tasks, but become dependent upon the community in times of stress. If properly trained in suitable vocations and carefully guided in times of emergency, large numbers of feeble-minded

people need never be in a position in which it is necessary for them to accept food, clothing, or shelter from the community. Many of the insane, unlike the feeble-minded, can be given such medical aid, diet, and rest that they can be restored to normal living.



TAKING THE SCHOOL TO THE WORKER

This picture shows a group of foreign employees attending a Plant School in an attempt to learn English. In this way the Bethlehem Steel Company is assisting many workers to overcome this handicap and to increase their ability to become self-supporting Americans. (Courtesy of Bethlehem Steel Company.)

c. Changes in the industrial world. Many men are receiving such meager pay for their work that they are barely able to provide food, clothing, and shelter for themselves and their families. As soon as they are unemployed either because of illness, a strike, or loss of a job, they must look to the community for assistance. Some of these people are feeble-minded. Others are foreigners who have had no opportunities for education in their native land and who for some reason have not taken advantage of opportunities in our own country. Others are grown-up boys and girls who left school at the earliest possible date. By far the greatest amount of dependency is among the uneducated. The best way to prevent this kind of de-

pendency is to help young people to choose a suitable vocation, and to encourage them to bend all their energies toward succeeding in it.

d. Disasters, like floods, fires, and wars. To the victims of fire and flood our citizens are always generous, for they know that bountiful assistance means speedy return of sufferers to their accustomed ways of living. By studying methods of fire prevention and flood control and by applying our knowledge we are reducing the suffering caused by disasters. In recent years our nation has been astonished by the revelations of physical and mental suffering resulting from the World War. So long as large numbers of people believe that our difficulties with other nations can be settled only by warfare, we shall probably have increasing numbers of blind, deaf, crippled, and mentally unbalanced ex-soldiers who will have the right to expect generous assistance from us.

1. What is a moron? (Find definition in your dictionary.) Why do morons, even more than normal boys and girls, need to secure vocational training before they leave school?
2. Make a list of the everyday activities into which deaf people can enter. If normal in other respects, do you see any reasons why deaf people should be dependent upon the community?
3. Make a similar list for blind people. Need they be dependent upon other people for their everyday requirements?
4. Do you know any people suffering from physical defects? What are they doing to secure a livelihood?

3. Good citizens work together to give aid to the unfortunate.

When we were studying the religious influences in our community we saw that the churches and affiliated philanthropic societies are playing a large part in alleviating the suffering, sorrow, and misery in the world. But the need is so great that our citizens, whether directly interested in church activities or not, must all lend a helping hand. In America, generous citizens have everywhere organized various types of welfare agencies, subscribed large sums of money,

and contributed a great amount of time and energy to assisting the needy and distressed, and in bringing good influences to bear upon the lives of our people.

In many communities so many welfare societies have been established that the work of one overlaps that of several others. This gives unscrupulous seekers of charitable aid an opportunity to secure help from several agencies at the same time. For example, a family in a certain community whose relief societies were not properly coördinated applied to eight different groups for Christmas baskets of food and clothing, and would have received aid from the entire number had it not been checked as a result of the arrival of visitors from four organizations at the home at the same time. As an outcome of such incidents, there is a growing tendency in towns, cities, and counties for private philanthropic societies to form federations, to exchange records, and to pool information on local conditions. This kind of coördination results in greater service to needy people and in the exposure of the unscrupulous.

Appeals for funds to support all these philanthropies have become so frequent in some cities that both welfare workers and public-spirited citizens spend excessive amounts of time, money, and energy in carrying their financial campaigns to successful conclusions. For this reason the philanthropic agencies in many communities are combining their budgets and making only one appeal each year. As a general rule this central financing bureau is known as a "Community Chest." This form of organization performs several useful services. It provides for the economical collection of funds for all the participating agencies. It brings workers from the many philanthropies into sympathetic coöperation with one another and with the community. It also analyzes the community's endeavors so that no two agencies are doing exactly the same kind of work. Perhaps its greatest service is that of bringing all sects, parties, and races together in one supreme effort to build better bodies, better characters, better homes, and better environment for all the people in the community.

Efforts to prevent and to relieve poverty are not entirely supported by voluntary contributions. Sympathy, humanity, civic pride, and standards of common decency have influenced the people all over our country to appropriate public funds. For example, most of our states provide funds to assist widows in maintaining family life for their small children. Many towns and cities are furnishing school lunches for undernourished children. Also, towns, cities, counties, and states support homes for the aged, the blind, the crippled, the feeble-minded, and the insane, as well as hospitals and clinics for the injured and the diseased. All these activities show that we are recognizing our duty as citizens to seek information about the unfortunate in our midst, and to work together to assist them.

1. During the Middle Ages the church dispensed and controlled most of the charity. Why do not modern churches assume entire responsibility for the prevention and relief of poverty?
2. Enumerate the relief and aid societies in your community. Do you coöperate? In what ways?

4. Our obligations do not end with charity; we must help to improve conditions.

The old adage, "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure," is applicable to all kinds of work with people suffering from the ill effects of poverty. For this purpose our schools, churches, newspapers, fraternal organizations, farm bureaus, and other associations are disseminating thrift lessons to the end that all who possibly can will make provision for the inevitable "rainy day." Likewise, many organizations are assisting boys and girls to find places in suitable vocations as soon as they leave school in order that they may be equipped to earn an income adequate to meet their needs. In our study of housing, health, and recreation in our neighborhood we saw what great improvements are made yearly. All these tend to decrease poverty. For example, in some communities where deplorable housing conditions exist, many workers lose much time because of their consequent ill-health; but in others,

where housing conditions have been improved, the loss of pay as a result of ill-health has been reduced to a minimum, because the better housing conditions enable workers to go forth



PREVENTING BLINDNESS

Smoked glasses are used by workmen to protect their eyes from the intensity of the light which comes from the stream of white-hot metal. (Courtesy of Ford Motor Company.)

to their day's labor refreshed by quiet rest in an airy sleeping room, and nourished by a breakfast amid attractive surroundings. Thus good housing conditions contribute directly to our ability to earn a living. In our shops and factories persistent efforts are made to improve lighting systems, methods of ventilation, and safety appliances on machinery. These precautions help to reduce and to avoid blindness, to ward off diseases which readily develop in impure air, and to lessen the number of accidents around machinery. If all good citizens work for these ends — to inspire thrift habits, to improve neighborhood condi-

tions of housing and recreation, to lessen the accidents and injuries in our industrial life — then we may hope to free our civilization of much of its sordid misery.

1. What is health insurance? How does it decrease poverty?
2. What is accident insurance? Find out from relatives or

friends about kinds of accidents against which insurance may be obtained, about premiums, and payments in case of accidents.

3. In what ways does unwholesome recreation increase poverty? Give examples.

5. Crime is committed by those who are unwilling to act in accordance with the rules established for the good of all.

It is not natural for us to abide by laws, for there is within each of us a desire to be somewhat selfish and to do as we please. Laws set definite limits beyond which we may not go. Their prime purpose is to make it possible for large numbers of people to live together in peace and harmony. Therefore we have to learn to suppress many desires, to restrain our impulses, and to control our actions. Through law we have acquired rights which all are bound to respect. The thoughtful citizen realizes that the absence of law means control by the cunning, the crafty, and the strong. In order that justice and important rights may prevail thoughtful citizens are willing to surrender certain small rights. However, the weak and careless do not assume their obligations to support our laws. They do not realize that America gives her citizens liberty under law, and that without law there would be no liberty.

Foremost among the conditions that favor crime are low physical and mental vitality, which lessens the strength of the will to resist temptations; poverty which increases temptations; the association of evil minds in unwholesome places of recreation; and the long hours, unsanitary surroundings, and low wages prevalent in some of our industries. In addition, some children are brought up by such lazy, or shiftless, or evil-minded parents that they are easily led into temptations to steal what industrious people have earned. Their selfishness and their desire to experience pleasures for which they cannot pay with honestly earned money cause them to follow lives of crime. To this list of conditions which cause crime, many more of a similar nature could be added. Thus we see that crime results from the failure of the individual to realize that

liberty and happiness come from obedience to law, and from the failure of the community to remove conditions which encourage crime.

1. From some good almanac get statistics which show the prevalence of crime in cities or towns in your state. Compare your city with the others of approximately the same size.
 2. In what ways does poverty increase temptations to commit crime?
 3. Why is it impossible to maintain liberty without laws?
 4. When a man lives alone on a large island, has he any need of laws? What happens when another man comes to the island? When a thousand people come?
 5. What is a misdemeanor? A felony? (Look up these words in your dictionary.)
- 6. Treatment of the criminal is not only for the purpose of protecting society, but also to make of the offender a good citizen, if possible.**

Less than one hundred years ago most people in our own as well as in foreign countries believed that crime could be prevented by fear of imprisonment or execution. Therefore the jails were places too horrible for description, and numerous offenses were punishable by death. Nowadays, the emphasis in many places is upon preventing crime by changing conditions and by securing the offender's reformation. To this end we have developed systems of warnings given to first offenders, of disciplining by brief sentences in jails or reform schools, of placing on probation, of exacting fines, revoking privileges, and of educating people in an effort to develop the law-abiding spirit. Such treatment makes those who break our laws for the first time feel the strong arm of justice, yet gives them ample opportunity to become good citizens.

In some cases where our courts are convinced that an offender is morally perverted or mentally defective, the usual treatment is to incarcerate him in a penitentiary or to send him to a hospital. Our ideal is to convert every jail, penitentiary, and prison into an agency for reforming, rebuilding,

and remaking the criminal's habits into the habits of a good citizen. However, we are still far from our ideal. In many states and counties our jails and penitentiaries are filthy structures reeking with vermin and disease germs. All too frequently young boys are confined in the same enclosures with hardened criminals, and young girls with shameless women. Under these conditions prisons become schools in which the young learn the devious methods of skillful law-breakers. Upon their return to freedom they are filled with a bitter hatred for laws and courts, and are much further removed from good citizenship than they were before their imprisonment.

In many communities there is still a strong tendency to inflict harsh and degrading punishments and in many cases the death penalty. Expert students of criminology have accumulated a mass of conclusive evidence which proves that such forms of punishment have little or no deterrent effect upon wrongdoers, but that they debase those who tolerate and inflict them. Not only for the criminal's sake, but for our own welfare we must therefore treat wrongdoers in a humane way, that is, give them clean beds, well-cooked food, facilities for bathing, opportunities for recreation, a chance to learn and to engage in a useful occupation for which some compensation is given, and training in regular habits of work, rest, and recreation. In this way we shall best promote our own welfare, and we shall bring back to productive labor many who have strayed into lives of crime.

1. Have you ever visited the jail in your community? If so, do you think it is reforming those imprisoned there?
 2. In what ways do harsh and unusual punishments injure those who inflict them?
- 7. Good citizens encourage and participate in movements to improve conditions and to prevent crime.**

Anything that citizens can do to make our laws more equitable will prevent crime. We must all feel that our laws are

fair, and that we have the same rights and privileges as the most influential citizen in our community. We must know that any violation of our community's rules will meet with immediate public disapproval. By disseminating these ideas we lay the foundation for respect for law, one of the surest preventives of crime.

The removal of the everyday conditions which encourage crime is a vast undertaking. Any program of the community which tends to increase the physical and mental well-being,



MAKING FLOWERS IN A NEW YORK TENEMENT

Home conditions of this kind do not give mothers and children such strong bodies and such cheerful dispositions as are most conducive to good citizenship. (Courtesy of the National Child Labor Committee.)

particularly of the less fortunate, encourages the law-abiding spirit. General and widespread provision for healthful recreation in playgrounds, community centers, public theaters, institutional churches, etc., will help relieve the strain placed upon those who are living in crowded tenements and those whose nerves are severely tried by the noise and speed of the modern workaday world. These will help to maintain or to build up the kind of physical and mental vitality which strengthens the will to resist temptation and gives training in team work. Steps taken to prevent unemployment, to

retard the spread of disease, and to preserve the integrity of the family will also tend to create a greater spirit of mutual understanding and respect. The segregation of the feeble-minded and the morally perverted in institutions will remove them from the pitfalls everywhere. And finally, if all citizens interested in social work, will, through legislation, education, and personal service, encourage the cultivation of habits of industry, thrift, self-control, and coöperation, their action will go a long way toward the rapid growth of the law-abiding spirit and the prevention and decrease of crime.

1. In what ways is crime increased by disease? By unemployment? By bad housing conditions? By poorly lighted streets?
2. Why is crime decreased by thrift habits? By respect for law? By wholesome recreation? By an honest police force?

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Burch and Patterson, *Problems of American Democracy*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. xxxiii — "The Problem of Poverty."
 Chap. xxxiv — "Organization of Charity."
 Chap. xxxv — "Problem of Crime."
 Chap. xxxvi — "Treatment of the Criminal."
 Chap. xxxvii — "Defectives in Society."
 The viewpoint in these chapters is modern and progressive.
2. Reed, *Loyal Citizenship*. (World Book Co.)
 Chap. xxiv — "Charity."
 Chap. xxxii — "The Care of Delinquents and Defectives."
3. Dunn, *Community Civics for City Schools*. (Heath.)
Community Civics and Rural Life. (Heath.)
 Chap. xxii — "Dependent, Defective, and Delinquent Members of the Community."
4. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
 Lesson C-26 — "Charity in the Community."
 Lesson C-30 — "Social Insurance."
5. Hill, *Community Life and Civic Problems*. (Ginn.)
 Chap. xii — "The Handicapped."
 The historical background in this chapter is excellent.
6. Addams, *Twenty Years at Hull House*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. viii — "Problems of Poverty."
7. Bok, *Why I Believe in Poverty*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 This little book recounts some of the boyhood experiences of Edward Bok, the editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal*.

8. Holt, *The Light Which Cannot Fail*. (Dutton.)

In this book are many true stories of blind men and women, tales so heroic that they read more like fiction than fact.

9. Pearson, *Victory over Blindness*. (Doran.)

This book was written by a blind man under whose care came practically all of the soldiers and sailors of the British Imperial Forces blinded in the World War. It tells us how most of these men surmounted their blindness and learned to be self-supporting, self-reliant citizens.

10. Barton, *The Red Cross*. (J. B. Lyon Co.)

Pages 155-172 — "The Johnstown Flood."

Pages 173-180 — "The Russian Famine."

Pages 275-315 — "Armenia."

These selections show how the Red Cross is helping the unfortunate in all parts of the world.

11. Osborne, *Within Prison Walls*. (Appleton.)

A narrative of personal experiences during a week of voluntary confinement in a state prison.

12. Taylor, *The Man Behind the Bars*. (Scribner's.)

The book contains a number of biographies of men who served prison sentences. It tells of the influences which helped these men to become good citizens, and of the forces at work which made it difficult for them to be law-abiding.

13. Lowrie, *My Life Out of Prison*. (Mitchell Kennerley.)

14. Riis, *How the Other Half Lives*. (Scribner's.)

The book is a series of studies made among the poor in New York City.

15. Wade, *The Wonder-Workers*. (Little, Brown & Co.)

Chap. VII — "The Magician of Faith."

It recounts the wonderful work of Judge Lindsey in reforming young offenders.

16. Rice, *Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch*. (Century Co.)

It is a charming story of the joys and sorrows of people struggling against poverty.

17. Keller, *The Story of My Life*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)

The book is a most interesting story of the childish pranks of this remarkable deaf-blind girl, of her education by a private teacher, and of her splendid achievements.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Woods, *Crime Prevention*. (Princeton University Press.)

Chap. I — "The Conventional Police Methods."

Chap. II — "Educating the Public."

Chap. III — "Diminishing the Supply."

Chap. IV — "Poverty."

These chapters relate vivid experiences of a police commissioner of New York City in his efforts to understand and to remove the causes of crime in his city.

2. Bowen, *Safeguards for City Youth*. (Macmillan.)

Chap. II — "Civic Protection in Recreation."

Chap. III — "Legal Protection in Industry."

These two chapters recount the work of the Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago in safeguarding the city's recreation and industry.

3. Barton, *Re-Education*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

The book is an analysis of the institutional system of the United States by one intimately acquainted with conditions in hospitals, almshouses, etc.

4. Devine, *Social Work*. (Macmillan.)

This book is an authentic statement of the progress of social work in dealing with dependents, defectives, and delinquents.

5. *Atlantic Monthly*, December, 1922. Fishman, "The American Jail."

This article gives a colorful description of unexcusable conditions in our jails.

6. Ellwood, *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*. (American Book Co.)

Chap. XII — "Poverty and Pauperism."

Chap. XIII — "Crime."

These two chapters are brief, scientific statements of the meaning, causes, and proposed remedies for the misfits and unfortunates among us.

7. Brockway, *Fifty Years of Prison Service*. (Charities Publication.)

Chap. XII — "Difficult Prisoners."

Chap. XIII — "The Better and the Average Types."

CHAPTER XI

CONSERVING OUR NATURAL RESOURCES: THRIFT

THUS far you have been studying some of our familiar institutions and the means we are employing to protect them against the ravages of fire, crime, and disease. But the very existence of our homes, our schools, our churches, and all our other institutions depends upon our ability to use wisely the resources which nature has placed at our disposal. In this chapter we are to consider what means we may employ to utilize these resources to our own advantage and to that of future generations.

Problems for you to investigate

THE MEANING OF THRIFT

I. Thrift means the development of the following habits in money matters:

A. Efficient earning.

1. What is the relation of your present progress in school to your future earning power?
2. What is the relation of a proper course of study in school to future earning power?
3. What is the relation of bodily vigor and health to earning power?
4. What is the relation between earning power and the leisure to participate in community affairs?

B. Systematic saving.

All saving implies a budget for the purpose of analyzing expenditures. Make a budget of your personal expenditures for the satisfaction of your own personal needs. Mark places where you think you could save systematically, that is, a certain amount each week or month.

C. Wise spending.

1. Questions to be answered when making a purchase are:
 - a. Can I afford it?
 - b. Do I really need it?
 - c. Do I want this more than anything else I could buy for the money?
 - d. Is this purchase made for the real value of the thing, or is it for show?
2. Analyze several of your recent purchases in this way. Then decide whether or not you spend wisely.

D. Secure investment.

Efficiency in earning, system in saving, and wisdom in spending are useless unless they are followed by secure investment. For example, United States government bonds have a maximum of security behind them.

1. Is the purchase of a home a good investment?
 - a. Do thrifty people carry fire insurance? Why?
 - b. Under what conditions is it wise to put your money into a business of your own?

II. Thrift means the maintenance of a standard of living within one's resources. In running the home, for example, the things of chief importance for the whole family are:

A. Provision of food. Questions likely to arise are:

1. Is the diet sufficiently varied? What foods are frequently served? In what combinations do they give greatest satisfaction?
2. Is the amount of food provided sufficient to keep all the family well supplied with energy?
3. Is the food for your home purchased in large quantities and stored for future use? What are the advantages of this method? Are there any disadvantages?
4. Is food served in such a way that all of it is appetizing? What use is made of left-overs?
5. Is shopping done by telephone, or in person? Is any one ever justified in shopping by telephone?
6. As a general rule, which is more economical, to pay cash or to buy on credit? Why?

- B. Provision of clothing. Select any piece of your clothing you wish and decide:
1. Was this piece of clothing purchased for needed protection against the weather, for promoting general health, and for giving good service?
 2. Was the material chosen for its quality and design?
 3. Was the style selected conservative enough so that the full value of the piece of clothing can be secured?
- C. Housing. Before selecting any house or apartment one ought to consider certain questions. Answer the following for your own home:
1. Does this dwelling provide enough space, and is the arrangement of rooms of such a nature as to permit a certain amount of privacy for the members of the family?
 2. Is the amount of light and air sufficient?
 3. Was this dwelling constructed for service to its occupants, or for purposes of show?
 4. Is it wiser to pay rent or to purchase a home at this time? Is this rental or the money invested in this home within our resources?
- D. Operating expenses. In many homes where food, clothing, and shelter are provided in a very thrifty way the household is run without regard for many details. Is your family thrifty in the following ways?
1. Is the heating system such as to give a maximum amount of heat for the money expended?
 2. Is the lighting system good enough to avoid eye-strain?
 3. Is the supply of water adequate?
 4. Are supplies of all kinds purchased in such quantities as to insure the greatest economy?
 5. Do the members of the family cooperate so as to reduce laundry bills, necessity for hired help, or undue drudgery on the part of the housewife?
- E. Culture wants. These wants vary widely in different families. In general they include expenditures for education, personal development, recreation, etc. Make a list for your own family. In each case decide whether

the expenditure is thrifty or extravagant. For example, is a boy talented in music thrifty when he neglects to develop his talent if he can afford to do so?

III. Thrift has a definite bearing on community life.

A. It makes for the greater security of the government by:

1. Home ownership.
2. Investments in government securities.
3. Investments in business enterprises.
4. Investments in farms and ranches.

Which of these four forms of investment do you think is of greatest value to the preservation of our government?

B. It makes for the prosperity of the local community.

1. Compare a community of thrifty people with one of extravagant people. Which has more money to spend? Which is the better place to live? Why?

C. It makes for the independence of the individual.

1. What is the relation of thrift on the part of parents to the educational opportunities of the children?
2. What is the relation of thrift to the development of art, music, literature, and architecture in any community? How do these contribute to the independence of the individual members of the community?

IV.

A. In order to emphasize the importance of thrift, plan a thrift program for one of your school assemblies. Abundant plays, stunts, poems, stories, and songs may be obtained from your librarian.

B. In some schools the ideals of thrifty living have made such an appeal to the pupils that they have organized school savings banks. Talk over this idea in your class. Remember that you may depend upon your local bankers to assist you in formulating your plans for your school bank.

C. The Federal Reserve Bank nearest your town or city probably has thrift posters and thrift pamphlets which it will be glad to send to your school. Appoint a committee to draft a request for this material. If you are

able to obtain posters, place them on conspicuous bulletin boards in your classrooms and in such other places as your teacher or principal may suggest.

1. Good Americans provide for their own future.

Wastefulness is the most culpable practice of which Americans are guilty. During the World War, it is true, we learned lessons in the thrifty management of our affairs. By saving slices of bread, ounces of fat and meat, and spoonfuls of sugar we helped to provision the allied armies and the needy peoples of Europe. We sacrificed personal comforts and gratifications in order to buy Thrift Stamps and Liberty Bonds and in order to contribute to the Red Cross and other welfare agencies. But as soon as the war was won the greatest wave of extravagance ever known to Americans passed over our nation. People spent their money saved during the war for costly automobiles, diamonds, furs, and other luxuries. The practice of thrift inspired by the national crisis of the war was soon abandoned by thousands of our citizens.

Very few Americans who indulged in this frenzy of spending saw any relation between their extravagance and our national needs. Little did they realize that many of our industries were calling upon them to save and to invest. They forgot that freedom itself depends upon thrift, for no man is a greater slave than he who is worried about his finances. Only that man is free who has made provision for his future. This freedom from financial worries gives him freedom of spirit to take part in the affairs of his community. Upon such citizens rests the burden of providing for the needs of our nation.

The good citizen develops his thrift habits in youth. As a boy he is careful of the use of his time; he puts forth his best efforts in school; he allows few opportunities for improvement to escape him. When he starts to work he spends part of his earnings with discretion and saves the rest. At first he deposits his surplus in a savings bank; later he invests in bonds or savings stamps, in a business enterprise, or in a home. Thus he earns, spends, saves, and invests. Occasionally he inves-

tigates his habits to see if he is making the best possible use of his opportunities. Upon careful, forward-looking, thrifty



ARE YOU BUILDING A FOUNDATION FOR THE FUTURE?

people of this kind the economic foundations of our nation are laid.

1. Does your father own a business? If so, ask him how he obtained the money to start it.
2. What is the difference between thrift and stinginess? Is a thrifty man a miser? Why?

2. Good Americans value the fertility of the soil.

Just as all good Americans are thrifty in the management of their own affairs, so also they are thrifty in their use of the nation's resources. Our fertile soil is our most valuable resource for from it must come most of the food supply of our one hundred and six million people. Its fertility is entrusted to us to use for our own purposes and to hand down to future generations in such good condition that our children's chil-

dren will be able to harvest abundant crops. Since our ancestors did not realize the need for conserving our farm lands, they thoughtlessly exhausted the soil of one farm and then moved to new land in the West. As a result, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and New York are replete with abandoned farms. Such wasteful treatment of the soil has practically ended, for, in 1890, when the Census Bureau announced that all land available for agriculture without irrigation or drainage was occupied, there began a widespread movement to conserve the fertility of our soil.

1. How is soil formed? How long does it take to produce an inch of loam? (Consult your geography.)
2. What factors determine the value of farm land? Discuss this question with some farmer or rancher whom you know.
3. What steps are taken by farmers in the Central states to prevent the depletion of the soil's fertility.
4. What is erosion? (Look up this word in your dictionary.) Is erosion injuring any land in your community? If so, how can it be stopped?
5. What are the chief agricultural products of your state? Consult the 1920 census for comparison of your state with other states in the Union.
6. Is a farmer who does not fertilize his land thrifty? Why?

3. Damaging flood waters can be converted into wealth.

During the spring months when the melting snows make our rivers overflow their banks, there are destructive floods in many places. In recent years the Ohio, the Colorado, the Missouri, the Illinois, and the Mississippi, all have done serious damage to crops and farm buildings, to life and property in towns and cities, and to the fertility of the soil. They have also carried to the ocean large quantities of water, some of which might have been stored in huge reservoirs and used for irrigation and for the development of power. Scientists tell us that the water flowing idly to the sea in the summer, and in the spring leaving ruined crops and devastated homes in its wake, could turn every factory wheel and electric generator,

operate our railroads, and still leave much energy for new developments. When we do not control floods we are wasting our resources in three ways: first, we are devastating our farm lands; second, we are hindering the irrigation of large amounts of arable land; and third, we are failing to build up our supply of electric power.

The greatest single agency working for the conservation of our water resources is the

Reclamation Service of our national government. This Service, organized under the Reclamation Act of 1902, is engaged in the investigation, construction, and operation of thirty



MAIN IRRIGATION CANAL

The water in this canal is diverted from the Kings River which is fed by the melting snows of the High Sierras.



IRRIGATING A VINEYARD

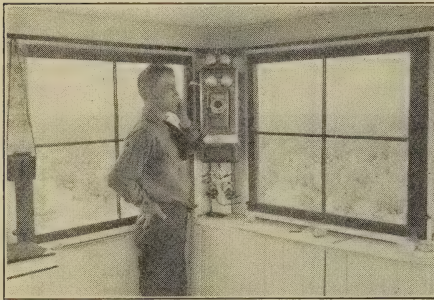
The water from the main canal is diverted to smaller canals and then into the vineyards. Three years before this picture was taken, this land was a barren desert.

irrigation projects, at least one of which is in every state south and west of North Dakota. Initial funds for the work come largely from the sale of public lands, and the money expended is repaid in annual installments by those who settle on the land. In connection with this work there have been constructed about one

hundred dams for water storage, over twelve thousand miles of canals, ditches, and drains, and twelve power plants. In a recent year one hundred and twenty-five thousand settlers

were living on thirty thousand farms irrigated by the Service. The total value of crops raised was about sixty-six million dollars. When the projects on which the Service is now working are completed, about three million acres of idle desert land will have been reclaimed and put under cultivation.

1. Appoint a committee of your class to secure publications of the United States Reclamation Service and to report to the class. Pamphlets may be obtained through your local library or directly from the Reclamation Service, Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C.
2. In what ways is your town, city, or irrigation district conserving flood waters? Is your community planning any projects to conserve more water? If so, where are they located? Who is going to pay the bill for the construction work? How?
3. Is there any land in your community that has been drained and is now under cultivation? If so, locate it on a map of your state. What is the relation of water conservation in other parts of the state to this drained land?



A FOREST RANGER IN HIS WATCH TOWER

After discovering the smoke of a forest fire through his telescope, the ranger locates the fire on his map. He then telephones to the ranger nearest the spot in order that the fire may immediately be extinguished.

4. **Floods are often due to wasteful methods of forestry.**

When our scientists began to make a serious study of the causes of floods, they quickly discovered the relation of our forests to our water supply. The early settlers of our country without thought of the future cleared thousands of acres of valuable

timber land to make room for their farms. In addition, our national government allowed many of our most valuable forests on hills and mountains to fall into the hands of private

individuals. Frequently the new owners used the land in whatever ways would yield them the largest profits, and consequently they not only cut the timber that was ready for use, but in their haste they destroyed the saplings, and left the ground covered with great quantities of waste. When dry,



THE WORK OF A FRESHET

One result of the destruction of forests; for without trees on the hills, the streams are liable to swell rapidly during the spring. Once overflowing their banks, they can do great damage.

this wasted material made kindling for destructive forest fires. Where forests have been destroyed by fire, careless lumbering, or thoughtless clearing, the melting snows and spring rains wash away the soil on the denuded hillsides, and the torrents of water pouring into the valleys cause irreparable loss of life and property.

1. What do you think of the citizen who leaves his camp-fire burning? Or who builds a fire near dry grass? Why?
2. What kind of trees are valuable for building houses? How

old are they at the time when it is customary to cut them?

3. Make a list of the daily necessities made wholly or in part from wood. List also as many wood products as you can.



A FOREST RANGER

Rangers travel over the forest trails high up into the mountain fastnesses in order to protect our forests against fire. The national government is interested not only in the preservation of the forests, but also in the prevention of floods from the melting snow in the springtime. The roots of the trees absorb much of the water and hold back much more.

officers called rangers. It also constructs fire-breaks, clears away underbrush, and maintains observatories and air-patrols. As soon as the lookouts catch sight of suspicious smoke, they telephone the alarm to the rangers who rush to the place indicated. So important is the control of a forest fire that the

5. Our national and state governments are establishing forest reserves.

In 1891 Congress recognized the need for forest conservation and adopted the policy of setting aside certain areas as forest reserves. The first reserves were around the sources of our large rivers. By 1920 nearly two hundred million acres were included within the boundaries of our national forests. All this land is under the supervision of the Forest Service in the Department of Agriculture. This Service has prepared strict rules for the prevention of forest fires and enforces them by special mounted

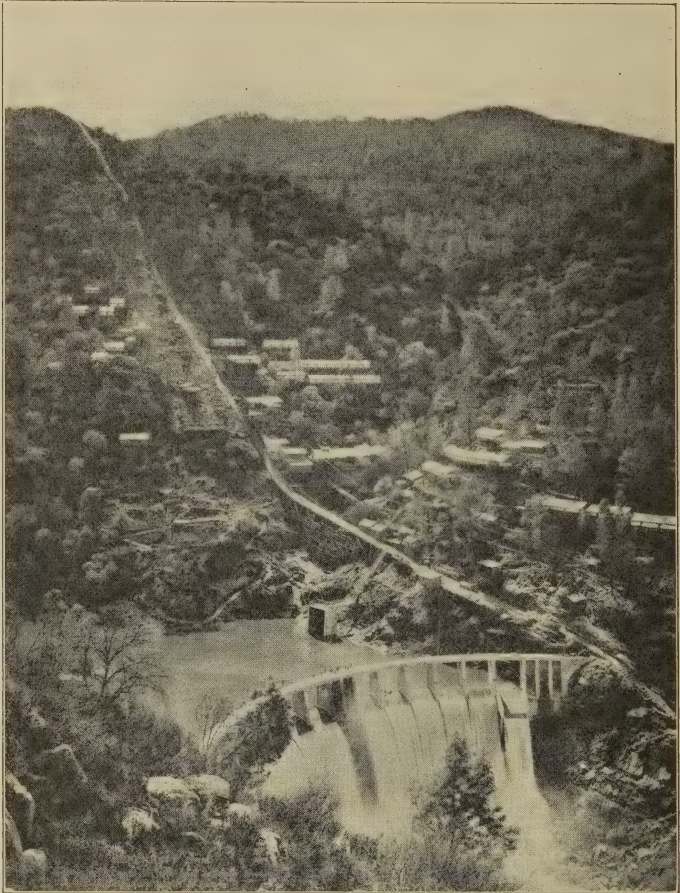
law requires any man to help as soon as the ranger requests his assistance. Such precautions as these enable the guardians of our national forests to prevent many fires. Nevertheless far more forests have been destroyed in recent years by fire than by careless lumbering or thoughtless clearing.

Our state governments have also shown their interest in forest conservation. For example, Massachusetts has formulated an ambitious plan for the reforestation of the Miles Standish Reservation, an eight thousand acre tract of land. The plan is to plant eight million seedlings over this area, which, in course of time, will yield marketable lumber. Though the soil is of little value as farm land, it will produce lumber at comparatively small expense. These places, like our two million acres of national forest reserves, are not only conserving our timber supply, but are also providing for us and for future generations beautiful places for rest and recreation.

1. Why is the Department of Agriculture interested in the Forest Service? Can you see any reasons why our national parks, like Yosemite, are not under the control of the Forest Service?
2. Who is Gifford Pinchot? Appoint a member of your class to look up his record in Who's Who.
3. Appoint a committee of your class to send a request for publications on lumbering to the Chief Forester, U.S. Forest Service, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. Find out:
 - a. Is any timber cut in the national forests? If not, why not?
 - b. If timber is cut, find out what are the restrictions to prevent waste?

6. Water conservation means fuel conservation.

In Section 4 of this chapter you learned that the water now flowing idly to the sea might be used to generate electricity. Because of our numerous, rapidly flowing streams water power is one of our great national heritages. Engineers tell us that only those rivers with a fairly uniform flow are suitable for power projects. In order to make the flow of water through

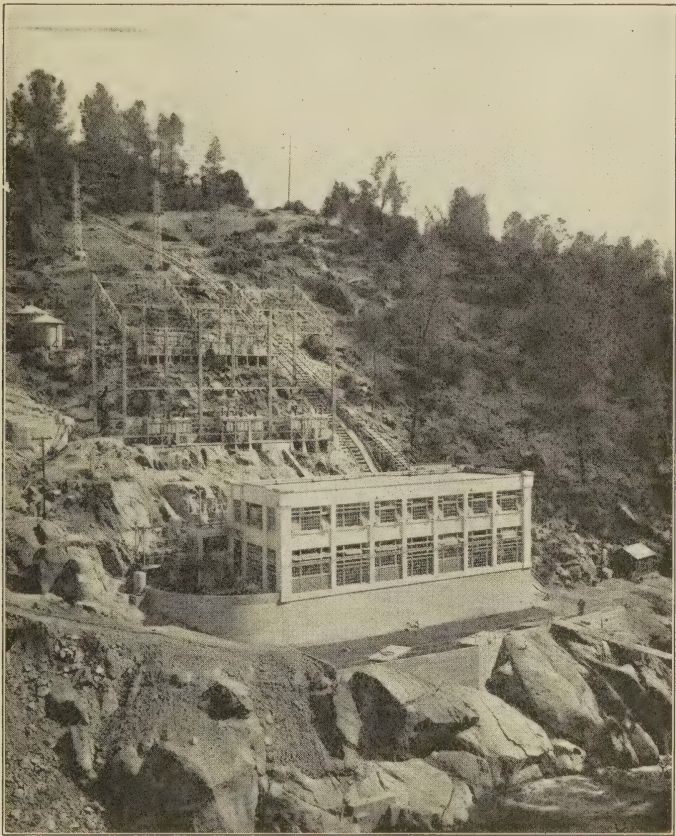


KERCKHOFF DAM IN THE SIERRAS

This dam is located in a box canyon fifteen hundred feet in depth. It diverts the water of the San Joaquin River through a tunnel three and one half miles long and eighteen by eighteen feet in height and width to a power house which generates fifty-four thousand horse-power. (*Courtesy of the San Joaquin Light and Power Company.*)

the power plant as nearly uniform as possible throughout the year flood waters are collected and stored in huge reservoirs made by constructing dams in convenient places near the headwaters of the river. Fairly uniform streams of water which has

been impounded in the reservoirs turn huge wheels which turn the electric generators in the power plants. The larger the



KERCKHOFF POWER HOUSE

In this building are the great turbines which convert the water power developed by the dam into electrical power. This power is then transmitted many miles to homes and factories. (Courtesy of the San Joaquin Light and Power Company.)

flow of these regulated streams, the larger will be the amount of hydro-electric power available for heat, light, and power in our homes, our schools, our churches, our factories, our places of recreation, on our farms, and in our cities.

A large part of the electric power now available for these purposes is developed by steam engines run by coal. Scientists who have studied our resources tell us that, at the present rate of increase in the demand for coal, all the coal now known to exist in our country will be gone in about one hundred and fifty years. Of course it is possible to mine coal more carefully, to prevent destructive fires in coal mines, and to practice rigid economy in our industries. However, such enormous amounts of coal are now used in steam engines to develop electric power that one third of our annual output is consumed for this one purpose. If all this power could be developed by conserving our flood waters in reservoirs, the demand for coal would be decreased, and larger amounts would remain for future generations to enjoy.

1. For what purposes do you use coal in your home? For what purposes do you use oil? Gas? Electricity? Make lists of the advantages and disadvantages of each.
 2. What power company furnishes your neighborhood with electricity? Where are the power houses located? What is the source of power that turns the generators?
 3. Appoint a committee of your class to write a letter to some official of your local power company asking him to speak to your class. You may possibly be able to arrange an excursion to some power house near your school.
 4. Is the conservation of coal more or less important than the conservation of timber? Why? Than water conservation? Why?
- 7. Our supply of metals is one of our greatest national assets.**
- No matter how industrious or how thrifty the people of a nation are, they cannot be prosperous unless their land contains metals. It is possible to carry plants and animals from one part of the world to another and to make them thrive and reproduce in their new environment; but mineral resources cannot be transferred, nor can they be created by the industry of the people. As the nation without metals must depend upon foreign countries for its supply, its industries may

be crippled at any moment by the refusal of enemies or foreign rivals to forward orders. This dependence of our industries upon metals has grown because of the use of machinery in all our industries. Iron is the chief ingredient of steel, the material from which most of our mechanical devices are made. Copper is essential wherever electricity is used for copper wire is the best commercial conductor of electric cur-



A WORK-ROOM IN THE FORD FACTORY, DETROIT

Trained men are working on the engine castings with tools made of hardened steel.
(Courtesy of Ford Motor Company.)

rents. Silver and gold, nickel and copper are needed for our coins and in our arts. Aluminum and tin supply many of our household needs. It is interesting to notice that the delegates at the Paris Peace Conference at the end of the World War recognized the value to a nation of mineral deposits within its boundaries, and therefore spent more time disposing of small areas containing coal and iron than of whole provinces of agricultural land.

Some of our metals, like gold and silver, are so highly prized that we have always employed more careful mining methods than with other more abundant and cheaper metals. In many cases these cheaper metals have been mined as wastefully as coal. Frequently only the richest ore is brought to the surface, while other grades are left in place where they may never again be available except at great cost. By such methods some of our richest iron and copper mines may be exhausted in a few generations.

Large areas of valuable mineral lands, like our forest lands, have been turned over to private individuals. At the time of these grants the government did not know of the hidden treasures beneath the surface, and hence the private owner became also the owner of whatever mineral wealth the land contained. In 1920 the national government decided to reserve for itself and for all the people all coal and minerals discovered in lands allotted to settlers. This policy will doubtless be a source of great revenue in the future. If it had been adopted sooner, our government would be the owner and could be the conservator of the vast wealth which has needlessly fallen into the hands of private individuals.

1. Appoint a committee of your class to report on methods of mining gold in California. If the government had control of the gold mines in California, do you think there would be any important changes in method? Why, or why not?
 2. Appoint a committee of your class to report on methods of mining coal and iron in the Lake Superior region. If the government had control of these mines, would there be any important changes made in the methods of mining? Give reasons for your answer.
 3. In what ways is the conservation of metals in our nation similar to thrift in the household?
- 8. Many types of engineers are assisting various phases of the conservation movement.**

Although the engineer of the present is engaged in nearly every activity where exact construction is demanded, a large

part of his work is in the realm of conservation. He plans and supervises the construction of reservoirs and dams to check floods, of canals to convey water for irrigation purposes, and of drainage and sewage systems to carry off refuse and surplus water. He helps to conserve forests by planning and supervising the building of trails and roads, fire-breaks, lookout stations, and telephone lines. Mining engineers are studying the strata below the earth's surface, are developing new machinery, and in other ways are improving the methods for mining coal and metals. Mechanical engineers are planning and supervising the building of the power houses from which we obtain our electricity for its multitude of uses. Chemical engineers are analyzing the products of the forest, the farm, and the mine, and are devising better means of satisfying our needs. Through their investigations they are discovering possibilities of utilizing waste materials and of manufacturing by-products.

In order to carry on these exacting activities the engineer must have a strong body and a keen, alert, highly trained mind. He must be able to see the application of his extended training in mathematics, science, building materials, etc., to the complicated problems of his profession. At the same time he must be able to coöperate with all classes of people, from the day-laborers who do the unskilled manual work to the capitalists who employ him. To the boy of high intelligence who is mechanically inclined, who is not easily discouraged, and who desires a life of continued study and hard work, the field of engineering is alluring.

1. Are any metals mined in your local community? If so, appoint a committee of your class to write an invitation to one of the engineers at the mines to speak to your class.
2. Are there any dams or other water conservation projects in course of construction in your community? If so, who planned them? Find out as much as you can about their construction and the men who built them.
3. Who planned the Panama Canal? The Roosevelt Dam in

Arizona? Appoint members of your class to report on these projects with special reference to the work of the engineers.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
 Lesson B-5 — "Saving the Soil."
 Lesson C-4 — "Petroleum and Its Uses."
 Lesson C-5 — "Conservation as Exemplified by Irrigation Projects."
 Lesson C-6 — "Checking Waste in the Production and Use of Coal."
 Lesson C-10 — "Iron and Steel."
 These lessons are simple statements of present conditions in these important industries.
2. Dunn, *Community Civics for City Schools*. (Heath.)
 Chap. xvii — "Thrift."
 This chapter goes into the details of family budgets and the investment of small savings.
 Chap. xx — "Our Land and Its Resources."
 Emphasis is placed upon the work of the national government in conserving our resources.
3. Reed, *Loyal Citizenship*. (World Book Co.)
 Chap. xxxiii — "Conservation of Natural Resources."
 The chapter gives a very brief statement of the reasons why our resources must be protected.
4. Pinchot, *The Fight for Conservation*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)
 The book is a series of well-written discussions of the problems of conservation, some of which were addresses delivered at conservation conferences, and others are reprinted magazine articles. Individual chapters may be made the basis of class reports.
5. Pack, *Our Vanishing Forests*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. i — "Such Stuff as Homes are Made of."
 Emphasis is upon the necessity of lumber for building homes.
 Chap. ii — "Three Thousand a Mile."
 It shows us the importance of wood in maintaining railroad transportation.
 Chap. iii — "Pole to Pole and Pillar to Post."
 It tells how wood helps to maintain communication.
 The entire twenty-one chapters of this book give us vivid pictures of our dependence upon our forests, of our need of conserving our supply of timber, and of the means we may employ to secure the best results.
6. Jackson, Deming, and Bemis, *Thrift and Success*. (Century Co.)
 This book is a collection of essays on thrift, stories about thrift, brief biographies of successful Americans, and poems and quotations about thrift. Every pupil will enjoy reading and perhaps memorizing some of these selections.
7. Chamberlain, *Thrift and Conservation*. (Lippincott.)
 Chap. i — "Thrift and the National Life."
 Chap. vii — "The Growth of the Conservation Movement."

Chap. XII — "Conserving and Using the Soil."

Chap. XIII — "Our Water Supply."

Chap. XIV — "The Value of the Forests."

8. Kyne, *The Valley of the Giants*. (Grosset & Dunlap.)

This interesting and exciting story deals with lumbering in the great redwoods of northern California.

9. Wright, *The Winning of Barbara Worth*. (A. L. Burt Co.)

The inspiration of this book was the transformation of Imperial Valley from part of the Colorado Desert to a beautiful land of homes, cities, and farms.

10. Wade, *Real Americans*. (Little, Brown & Co.)

"Herbert Clark Hoover." It is a simple biography which tells us how Herbert Hoover obtained his education as a mining engineer, worked on mining projects in many countries, and was our Food Administrator during the World War.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Little, "Developing the Estate," *Atlantic Monthly*, March, 1919.

2. Van Hise, *The Conservation of Natural Resources in the United States*. (Macmillan.)

Part I — "The Mineral Resources."

Part II — "Water."

Part III — "Forests."

Part IV — "The Land."

Part V — "Conservation and Mankind."

In this book is included the substance of twenty university lectures arranged as indicated in the titles of the Parts. Together they give a correlated statement of the special phases of conservation.

3. Munro and Ozanne, *Social Civics*. (Macmillan.)

Chap. XVII — "Natural Resources and Conservation."

4. Towne, *Social Problems*. (Macmillan.)

Chap. XV — "Conservation of Natural Resources."

Chap. XVI — "Conservation of Plant and Animal Life."

Chap. XVII — "Conservation of Human Life."

These three chapters give recent developments of these three phases of the conservation movement; but they are too detailed and technical for young pupils.

5. Bennett, *How to Live on Twenty-Four Hours a Day*. (Doran.)

CHAPTER XII

COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORTATION

No community, even in our rich country, is able to supply its people with all the materials and products from its natural resources that they need for their comfort and industries. For example, some communities have an abundance of fruit, grain, and dairy products, while others have rich deposits of metals. In order that all our people may receive the greatest benefit from our scattered resources we must develop the best possible means of transportation which will enable us to exchange them. We also have to know what materials other people possess and what materials they need. For this purpose our postal system, our telegraph, radio, telephone, and cables have been developed. And further, we need the best possible passenger train service to carry us quickly from one place to another. In this chapter we shall try to discover how our people have tried to solve their problems of transportation and communication in the past and we shall learn how modern inventions are helping to unify our nation.

Problems for you to investigate

OUR HIGHWAYS

- I. Our county highways.
 - A. Appoint a committee of your class to obtain from your county board of supervisors the following materials:
 1. A map of your county which shows the paved highways, the improved roads, and the dirt roads. If no such map is available, get a list of the roads which have been constructed out of county funds. Then get an automobile map of your county from the nearest office of the automobile club. Mark the county roads in red. What other permanently improved roads are there? Do you know who paid for their construction?

2. Annual reports of your county board of supervisors for as many years as reports are available. From these reports find out:
 - a. Amounts of money spent on roads each year.
 - b. Work completed each year.
 - c. Source of the money; that is, taxes, or bond issues.
 - d. How the bond issues are to be paid when the bonds come due.

II. Our state highways.

- A. Has your state a highway commission? If so, when was it established? Who are the present commissioners? From what parts of your state do they come? How did they get their positions?
- B. Get reports of your State Highway Commission from your local library or directly from the Commission. Find out:
 1. Location of present state highways.
 2. Proposed highways.
 3. Means of defraying the cost.
 4. Amounts of federal aid granted in recent years.
- C. On an outline map of your state locate the highways.
 1. Are your highways continuous or in short strips?
 2. Can you see reasons for constructing them in the places where they now are?
 3. What extensions do you think are needed? Why?

III. Our national highways.

Though we have no highways built and maintained entirely by the national government, yet a number of highways traverse many states. On an outline map of the United States locate:

- A. The Dixie Highway.
- B. The Dixie Overland Highway.
- C. The Lincoln Highway.
- D. The Roosevelt National Highway.
- E. The Yellowstone Trail.

(Maps and information may be obtained through any automobile club.)

IV. A. What automobile clubs have been organized in your

state? How does one become a member? What privileges do members receive? What valuable contributions are these automobile clubs making to the people in your state?

B. What is the name of the national automobile club? What is it doing? How is it supported?

1. Our highways are binding our people together.

When you were coming to school this morning, you were using a road that leads to all parts of the earth. Not very far distant from your home your own road leads into a high-



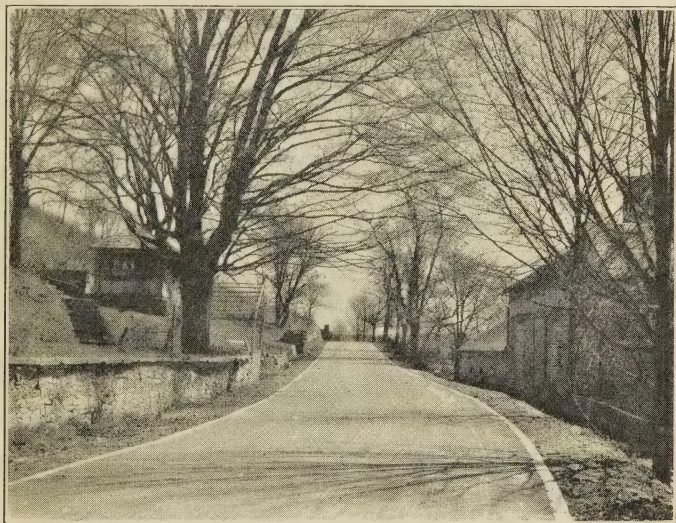
A HIGHWAY IN MONTANA

Good roads, the automobile, the telephone, the telegraph, and the radio help to draw the people of the state together. (*Courtesy of Bureau of Roads, Washington, D.C.*)

way. This highway soon becomes a city street, a link that brings you to the railroad. As soon as you board a train, you are on your way to a great metropolis, San Francisco, or St. Louis, or Chicago, or New York. You are in touch with millions of your fellow citizens, for our roads lead everywhere

and anywhere. Upon them we and the products of our labor are transported to other near and distant places, and upon them are carried to us the products of countless farms, mines, forests, and factories.

Our roads are instrumental in the development of community spirit. Every community in America which has become interested in developing its highways is making all forms of group life more available for its people. Good roads



A COUNTRY ROAD IN PENNSYLVANIA

This highway was built through the coöperation of the State of Pennsylvania and the national government. (*Courtesy of Bureau of Roads, Washington, D.C.*)

are bringing the school closer to the home, particularly in the rural districts, and more pupils are enrolled from distant points than ever before in the history of our country. Boys and girls do not object to, rather, they seem to enjoy, traveling four or five miles to school if smooth pavements enable them to reach their destination quickly; but the discomforts and inconvenience of the daily jolting over rough roads soon take a large part of the joy out of going to school. Parents

feel the same way about going to church, or to vote at the local election, or to attend the county fair, or about going to hear a far-famed speaker. In these ways good roads not only make life more pleasant, but they also encourage participation in every worthy activity of the community.

A good road is the product of coöperation, and at the same time it fosters other types of coöperation. All of us help construct the road by paying taxes to our local community, to our state, and to our nation. We secure the expenditure of this money for building roads in our community by working together for this end. When construction is completed we pay more taxes to keep the road repaired and free from dust and rubbish. Through our representatives we make laws governing the speed of travel and the weight of loads. Our fire departments are able to reach us rapidly in case of emergency, and our police give us added protection. Our food is cheaper because we have to spend less time in procuring it, and we get more for the produce we take to town because we can transport heavy loads rapidly. For these reasons community coöperation for the construction of good roads not only binds the people closer together, but also brings great financial returns to the community.

1. Make a list of the ways in which good roads enable the police to give us added protection.
 2. How long does it take you to reach your school? Can you suggest any road improvements that would shorten the time? If so, what? If all the roads you use in coming to school are improved, show the relation of these roads to your progress in school.
- 2. The rough condition of early roads made transportation and communication slow and dangerous.**

The first roads in America were chiefly Indian trails widened sufficiently to accommodate a cart or wagon. The only way to go long distances at all rapidly was on horseback. Toward the end of the eighteenth century stage coaches made

regular trips between the larger towns requiring about a day to travel the distance our trains now make in an hour. For example, the trip from Philadelphia to New York is now a two-hour run, but when Washington was President it was a two-day journey. Travel was not only slow but very uncomfortable, because the coach was likely to be stuck in the deep mud in rainy weather, and it bumped over the uneven surface in dry weather. Journeys were taken at the risk of life and limb.

This condition of the roads caused mail to travel slowly. Mails were sent from New York to Boston and to Philadelphia only two or three times a week, while remote settlements received mail at irregular intervals. Usually letters were allowed to accumulate until the sum of their postage was sufficient to pay the expense of the trip. Not only was delivery slow, but postage rates were high, for it cost from six to twenty-five cents to pay the postage on an ordinary letter. Even then letters for settlements off the usual routes of travel sometimes were held two months before starting on their journey.

A brief sketch of a prairie schooner on its way from the Mississippi Valley to California will show what conditions were even as late as 1849, the year of the great rush to our gold mines in the West. When the prospective Californians left their homes in Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, and neighboring states, they said "Good-bye" to their friends as if they never expected to see them again. Many of the caravans for the westward journey were organized at Independence, Missouri. The trip over the trails to the summit of the Sierra Nevada Mountains near Lake Tahoe occupied four months in good weather. A few expeditions made better time, but most were much slower. All who started late in the summer ran the risk of being snowed in by an early winter. Many people joined expeditions without knowing the length of the journey, the danger from the Indians, the difficulties of the mountains, or the perils of the desert. In 1849, five thousand

people died of disease, starvation, and exposure along the trails leading to California. Forty thousand others, stronger, more fortunate, or more experienced succeeded in completing the perilous journey.



A PRAIRIE SCHOONER

This picture shows an early method of transportation dramatized by a motion picture corporation. (Copyright, Underwood & Underwood.)

1. What was the Pony Express? Why was it welcomed so highly?
 2. Why are toll roads unsatisfactory? Does this system throw the expense of road-building directly on those who use the roads? Why?
 3. Did any of your relatives go West in prairie schooners? If so, ask them to relate some of their experiences on the journey.
3. **Waterways supplied some of the early demands for better communication and transportation.**
- Because travel by land was slow, perilous, and unpleasant, people turned to the waterways. All along the Atlantic coast there were many good harbors, and the rivers were navigable

far into the interior. Beyond the Appalachians was the vast Mississippi Valley with its numerous navigable rivers. To the north were the mighty St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes.

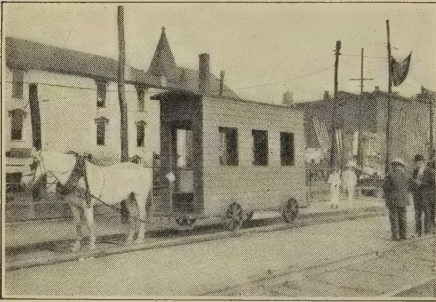
As early as 1785, our people began to supplement our natural waterways with canals. In 1825 was completed the most famous early canal, the Erie, which connected Lake Erie directly with the Hudson River, and indirectly connected the seaport of New York with the region drained by the Great Lakes. It reduced the cost of carrying a ton of goods from New York to Buffalo from \$120 to \$14, and therefore made it possible for people to transport their tools, household equipment, food and grain supplies, and building materials to their new homes in the West at a reasonable cost. Shortly after the completion of the Erie Canal the Ohio Canal was built linking Lake Erie with the Ohio River, and thereby connecting the great Mississippi Valley with the Atlantic seaboard. Along these waterways were founded many of the most successful settlements in the West.

In the early days the only motive power for boats was supplied by wind or oars. In 1807, Robert Fulton made his first successful trip up the Hudson in his steamboat, the Clermont. A few years later steamboats were in use on the Ohio. These early steamers were crude, and made slow progress up stream, yet their use opened a new era in navigation.

1. What water routes were used in early travel to your state? Did any of your relatives go West by water routes? If so, ask them to relate their experiences. How many days did the journey consume?
2. Why is transportation of freight by water cheaper than by wagon? By motor trucks?
3. What is the relation between the cost of carrying freight and the prosperity of a community? Use your own community to illustrate.
4. Why did the use of the steamboat open a new era in navigation?

4. Our railroads have helped to make our nation one community.

Five years after the Erie Canal was completed, a new



EARLY PASSENGER CAR

Vehicles of this kind were used in transporting passengers on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad nearly one hundred years ago. (Courtesy of Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company.)

method of transportation appeared, namely, the railroad. The first railroads were roads made from wooden rails laid end to end. The wheels of the wagons fitted the wooden rails in much the same way as the wheels of our street cars fit into the grooves in the most modern steel tracks.

Horses and mules could pull loads over these roads much more rapidly than over the rutted highways.

If people had been contented with the speed made by the horses and mules over these new roads of wooden rails, railroads could not have influenced our national development to any great extent. It was the

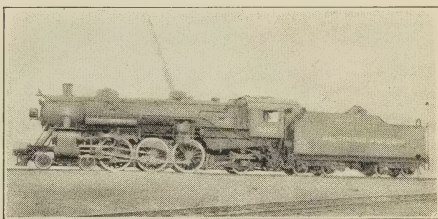


THE "YORK" LOCOMOTIVE

This picture shows one of the earliest types of railroad engines. It was a long step in advance of the horse-drawn vehicle shown above. (Courtesy of Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company.)

steam locomotive that made the railroads of real service, for by them the speed and volume of transportation was multiplied many times. Our first railroad was the Baltimore and Ohio which was opened for traffic in 1830. By 1840, there were three thousand miles of rail-

road in the United States, and in 1860 there were thirty thousand miles. Our first transcontinental railroad was started in 1863. The plan provided for construction by two groups of men, one to work from Sacramento east and the other to work from Omaha west. In the main, the railroad followed the same trails as those used by the prairie schooners. The difficulties in the way of completing the project were so great that few people believed the road could ever be finished. The undertaking called for two thousand miles of track through lands inhabited by unfriendly Indians. There were no towns to provide food or shelter for the army of workers. The engineering problems were extremely difficult, for the road had to cross over lofty mountains and to go higher than a railroad had ever climbed before. In spite of these seemingly insurmountable difficulties the road was finally completed in 1869. By 1920 our



A MODERN BALTIMORE AND OHIO LOCOMOTIVE
Locomotives of this kind are used in passenger traffic on lines which maintain limited trains. They represent the highest development of the steam engine. (Courtesy of Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company.)

railroads were operating trains over 250,000 miles of tracks in every state in the Union, thus inextricably tying our nation together in one great community.

1. How many transcontinental railroads are there in the United States now? Get a map of our country showing railroads. (If you cannot find one in your geography, you will perhaps be able to get one from your local railroad agent. In the larger towns and cities there are offices of companies which make a business of organizing tours. Such companies usually have very good maps.)
2. Who was James J. Hill? Cornelius Vanderbilt? Leland Stanford? What valuable service did they perform for the nation?

3. Are any extensions of railroads now under construction in your community? If so, what added convenience will the new line give? If possible, get some official connected with this construction to tell the class how railroads are surveyed and built.

5. Our railroads at first were encouraged by the government, but no supervision was exercised.

During the period of great railroad expansion, towns, cities, counties, and states sold many millions of dollars' worth of bonds to their people and gave the money to the railroads to assist them in building local lines. The states in the West and the national government gave freely of their public lands. Thus private enterprise was everywhere encouraged by government aid.

Along the new steel highways flourishing communities sprang up, for the presence of the railroads encouraged districts to bend all their energies to growing or manufacturing those things which they could produce most economically. Therefore Iowa raised grain and hogs; Minnesota raised wheat, and Denver and Kansas City became industrial centers. The prosperity of these communities was almost entirely in the hands of railroad officials for every settlement depended upon the railroad to take away the things it had in abundance and to bring back the things it needed. Whenever the railroads increased freight rates, it usually meant that all the people served by them had to pay more for the goods they bought and to take less for the goods they sold. Sometimes the railroads gave very low rates to some communities and charged high rates in others. This rate-fixing power enabled them to advance or retard the development of any section dependent upon them. For these reasons it seemed best to Congress and to the states to exercise some control over their management.

1. Why do increases in freight rates affect the people on the Pacific Coast to a greater degree than any other section of our country?
2. There are rich coal deposits in northwestern Canada, but little coal is mined. Why?

6. The railroads are now regulated by the national government.

In 1887 Congress established the Interstate Commerce Commission. This Commission has power to inquire into the management of railroads, steamship lines, and express companies which carry on business in more than one state. It has general power to inspect and supervise the service given



THE SOUTH STATION, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

This is the terminal of several railroads running into Boston. Because of the large suburban population to the south of the city, the number of people passing through this station in the course of a year is greater than that in any other station in the country. In the foreground are shown the tracks of the Elevated Railroad, which conveys people to many different sections of Boston.

to the people, and it has special power to determine and fix just transportation rates. As the fixing of these rates is a very laborious and delicate task, a large part of the commission's energy is consumed in rate-making.

The limit to which the government can control the railroads was demonstrated during the World War when, on January 7,

1918, because of our national need, President Wilson issued a proclamation by which the government "took possession and assumed control" of over 250,000 miles of railways owned by nearly 3000 different corporations. The President's action was for the purpose of unifying the administration of our railroads in order that troops and war materials might be sent to army camps on special trains, and that time schedules might be changed to suit the plans of the War Department. The aim was to allow no private interests to interfere with the great task of winning the war. However, since the ownership of the railroads remained in the hands of the private corporations, the government compensated them for the use of the property.

On February 28, 1920, Congress passed the Transportation Act of 1920, which did three things. First, it provided for the return of the railroads to private management. This took place on March 1, 1920. Second, it adjusted losses which had occurred as a result of governmental management. Third, it established the Railway Labor Board, to which is entrusted the settlement of disputes between the railroad managers and their employees. The board consists of nine members, three representing the unions of railroad employees, three representing the managers, and three representing the public. The representatives of the public are appointed by the President of the United States.

1. Do you think the government had a right to run the railroads during the World War? Why, or why not?
2. Watch your newspapers for reports of the work of the Railway Labor Board. Read your clippings in class and paste in your notebook.
3. What were the causes of the dispute between the labor unions and the operators in the railroad chaos in 1922? What were the steps taken toward its adjustment? Was there government interference? Why? Use newspaper and magazine files.

7. We are developing our waterways to meet some of our transportation needs.

After the beginning of the World War in 1914, our country was called upon to supply large quantities of food, clothing, and munitions to the belligerents. The large shipments of goods to our ports overtaxed our railroads to such an extent



AEROPLANE VIEW OF THE SAN FRANCISCO WATER FRONT

To these docks come the steamships of twenty-four lines engaged in foreign trade and of twenty-nine lines engaged in coastal trade. Merchandise brought to this harbor by water is carried by the railroads to many parts of the United States. (*Courtesy of San Francisco Chamber of Commerce.*)

that interest in our waterways was revived. Many of the old canals were deepened and widened. For example, New York has recently spent \$135,000,000 upon the improvement of the Erie Canal and its branches. To encourage the extension of waterways Congress during every session appropriates large sums of our national revenue for their improvement, and for this purpose, too, our national government is operating a

barge line on the Mississippi River to show the value of river transportation. Although this barge line charges about fifty per cent of the average rate charged by our railroads, it is making a good profit.

The most important canal recently constructed is the Panama Canal. It was opened to commercial traffic August 15, 1914. During 1915, a thousand and seventy-two vessels carrying nearly five million cargo tons passed through the canal. In 1921 nearly three thousand ships used the canal, and conveyed nearly twelve million cargo tons, a large amount of which was freight from our factories along the Atlantic seaboard for California and other far western states. The canal has shortened the water route from our Atlantic ports to our Pacific ports and thus has reduced freight charges to such an extent that many eastern manufacturers and many western producers prefer to ship their goods by way of the canal rather than on the railroads.

1. Why is Congress interested in improving our waterways? Have there been any recent improvements in your community? If so what are they?
2. Why is it cheaper to transport bulky freight by water than it is to transport it by rail? What is the relation of freight rates to the cost of living? Explain by using freight rates on food as an example.
3. What products from the Pacific Coast are shipped to eastern points by way of the Panama Canal?

8. The development of a system of public roads has been slow.

In Article I, Section 8, of the Constitution, Congress was granted power "to establish post-offices and post-roads." It took advantage of this power to improve our early highways, and in 1806, authorized the building of the Cumberland Road. This road started at Cumberland in Maryland, followed the old trails through the Appalachians and across the rolling hills and level prairies, and finally terminated in St. Louis. Work on the road went on intermittently for nearly

thirty-five years, during which the total cost to the national government was nearly seven million dollars. Long before the Cumberland Road was completed, people began to question the right of the national government to spend money in this way.

Soon the responsibility for highways fell back upon the individual states and then upon local governments. Populous communities, like Pennsylvania, constructed "turnpikes." In sparsely settled regions private companies smoothed the rough trails and laid planks. At frequent intervals a toll-gate stopped the traveler, and before he could proceed farther he had to pay toll for the privilege of using the next section of the road. Since the motive in building these roads was not so much service as profit, most of the roads



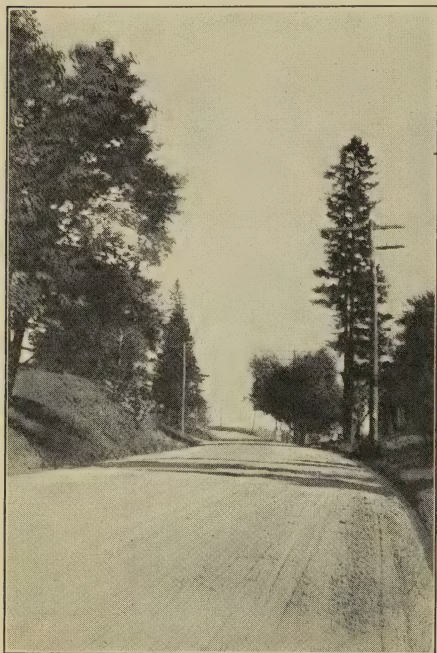
A PENNSYLVANIA HIGHWAY

This road was constructed by cooperation between the State of Pennsylvania and the national government. Probably this road was originally a "turnpike." (Courtesy of Bureau of Roads, Washington, D.C.)

were as poorly constructed as one may well imagine. Tolls were usually charged as long as the road was passable.

During the era of railroad expansion little interest was shown in the building of public highways. Several states had granted aid to local communities; but they did not attempt to build up a connected system of improved roads. New Jersey granted the first state aid for roads in 1891. Massa-

chusetts followed her example in 1892, and California in 1895. By 1914, forty-two states had highway departments whose engineers supervised all road building in the state. In 1916, Congress passed the Federal Aid Road Act, which appropriated



Courtesy of Bureau of Roads, Washington, D.C.

A NEW HAMPSHIRE HIGHWAY

seventy-five million dollars to aid states in improving their "rural post-roads." Federal aid is given to states only upon their request, and upon the conditions that plans for the proposed improvements are approved by the Secretary of Agriculture, and that each state shall furnish an amount of money equal to that provided by the national government. As a result of this Act, every state in the Union now has a well-organized highway department, and roads are being improved so rapidly that within a few years the United States will

undoubtedly have an exceptionally fine system of paved highways.

The demand for these improved roads has come both from the farmer and from the city dweller. Every owner of an automobile and every driver of a motor truck is an advocate of good roads. In turn the presence of good roads has induced many people to purchase automobiles and trucks. Stage lines have also taken advantage of recent improvements.

Regularly operated motor truck lines are now carrying express and freight in several states.

1. Why are fares on automobile stages usually cheaper than on railroads?
2. Do automobile stages carry mail? Why, or why not?
3. Appoint a committee to write to the Publicity Secretary of the Lincoln Highway Association in Detroit for a map of the Lincoln Highway. Ask him for reports telling amounts of money furnished by local communities, by states, and by the national government.

9. The airplane is the latest means of transportation.

The World War stimulated the development of aeronautics to a very marked degree. Hundreds of American boys who became experienced aviators during the war are now piloting the planes of the Aerial Mail Service, of the Army, of the Navy, and of commercial companies. According to the statistics of the Manufacturers' Aircraft Association, commercial planes flew 6,000,000 miles and carried 225,000 passengers in the United States during a recent year. Pilots in the Army Air Service flew 6,250,000 miles, the Naval aviators flew 1,500,000 miles, and the Aerial Mail flew 1,500,000 miles. Relatively few accidents have occurred in the Aerial Mail Service. The great majority of airplane accidents have happened during stunt, exhibition, and experimental flights.

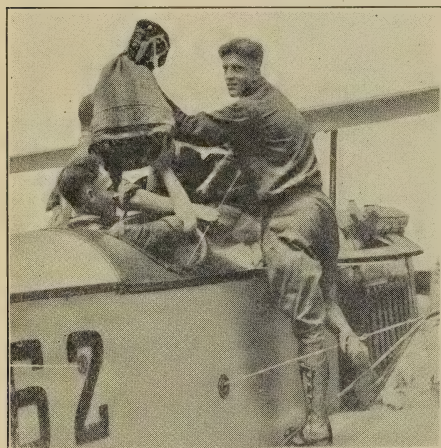
1. In what ways are airplanes assisting to unify our nation?
2. Who are the Wright brothers? Appoint a member of your class to report on their work.
3. Why were airplanes used extensively during the World War?

10. Mail service plays an important part in community life.

We use the mails for so many purposes that it is hard to understand what our lives would be without the convenience afforded us by the post-office. Through the mails we receive our magazines, our newspapers from distant cities, advertisements, notices of meetings, bills, and letters and cards from

our friends in addition to packages containing an unlimited variety of articles. The business man, the politician, the clergyman, the teacher, the doctor, the lawyer, the engineer, all depend upon the postal service to assist them in their work. No other agency comes into the everyday life of the large and small community as does the mail service.

In 1800 there were 903 post-offices in the United States, and the postal routes extended over 20,817 miles. In a recent



AN AERIAL MAIL PILOT LEAVING NEW YORK
FOR WASHINGTON

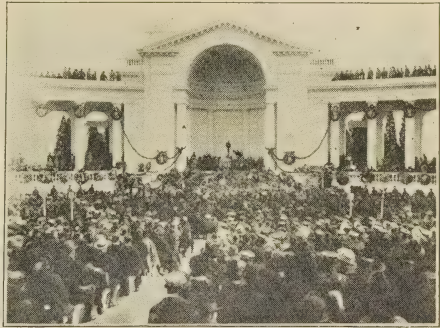
An army aviator in an army plane leaves once a day from New York and once a day from Washington with the mail, making a stop at Philadelphia on each trip. (Copyright, Underwood & Underwood.)

year there were 52,168 post-offices and the extent of the postal routes was 434,349 miles. Rural free delivery of mails has stimulated the construction of permanent roads and has helped to make country life more satisfactory. Largely because our government saw the relation of rapid transportation to the effectiveness of the mail service, Congress encouraged the early railroad builders by granting them large tracts of land. Recently the Post-Office Department has established air mail routes, one of them connecting New York and San Francisco. The stage, the railway, the steamship, and the air lines carry our letters and packages to the remote parts of the earth, and thus join our interests to the interests of a world community.

1. Where is your local post-office? Who is your postmaster? How did he get the position? When? How long will he hold it?

2. What other work does the post-office do besides transporting letters and packages?
3. Make a list of the purposes for which you and your family use the mails.

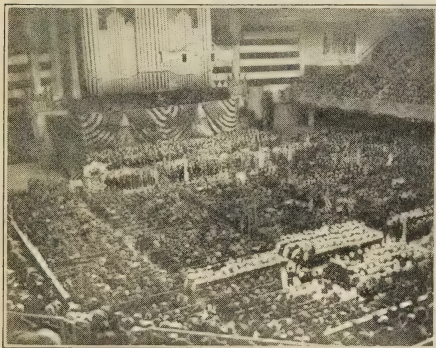
11. The telephone, telegraph, radio, and cable help to make the local community part of a world community.



AMERICA MOURNS AT THE BIER OF AN UNKNOWN SOLDIER

This picture gives a general view of the amphitheater at Arlington, Virginia, during the final and most impressive of the nation's tributes to the unknown soldier who gave his life for his country in the World War. President Harding is shown delivering an address over the flower-decked casket. (Copyright, Underwood & Underwood.)

When President Harding was delivering his address at the bier of the unknown soldier in Arlington Cemetery, Virginia, on Armistice Day, 1921, not only the people in the

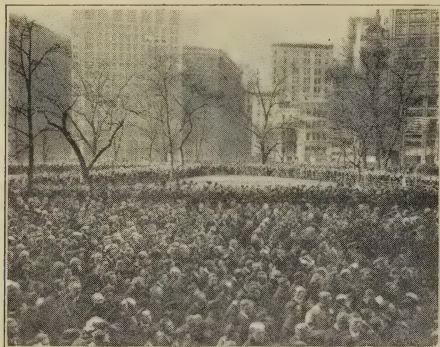


INTERIOR OF THE CIVIC AUDITORIUM, SAN FRANCISCO, ON ARMISTICE DAY, 1921.

This picture shows the congregation of eleven thousand people who had gathered in San Francisco's largest auditorium to hear President Harding's address at Arlington, Virginia. The President's words were carried across the continent on telephone lines especially reserved for this purpose. (Courtesy of American Telephone and Telegraph Company.)

amphitheater heard him, but also great crowds in Madison Square Gardens, New York, and other crowds in the Civic Auditorium in San Francisco. Through the use of the radio and the voice amplifier all these people in different cities were formed into one great audience. In a less spectacular way other, but less recent, inventions help us to annihilate space daily. The telephone and telegraph

lines enable us to communicate with our friends and to carry on our business in distant places. Our cables bring us news



PART OF THE CROWD IN MADISON SQUARE GARDENS, NEW YORK

These people are listening to the same address as the people in the amphitheater at Arlington, Virginia, and the people in the Civic Auditorium at San Francisco. (*Courtesy of American Telephone and Telegraph Company.*)

from lands across the sea. All these means of communication are employed by our daily newspapers and enable them to keep us informed on recent events in our own town, our state, our nation, and in every foreign land.

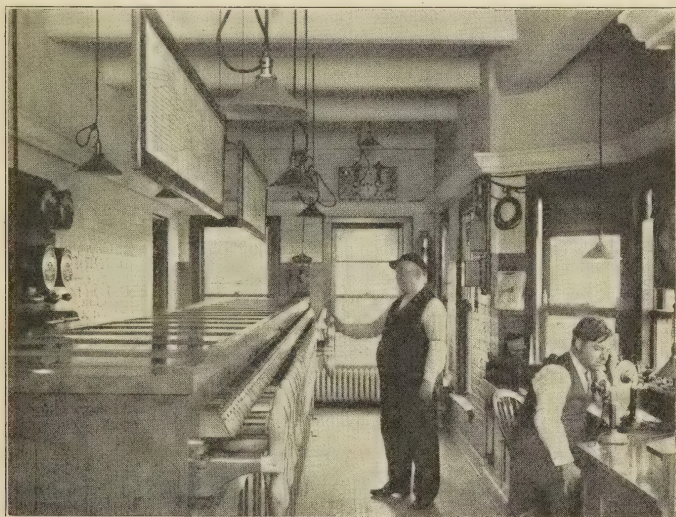
1. During the World War our national government operated our telephone and telegraph lines. Why?

2. Who invented the telephone? The telegraph? Radio? Appoint members of your class to make reports on the experiences of these inventors.
3. When was the first Atlantic cable laid? The first Pacific cable? Appoint members of your class to make a special report.
4. Let each member of the class write a telegram to some relatives or friends inviting them to attend your graduation exercises. Then appoint a committee to select the most appropriate telegram, and to find out the cost of sending it to a distant city. Would telephoning cost more or less? Do you see why?

12. Many thousands of workers are operating our systems of communication and transportation

On long automobile journeys across lonely prairies or through the wild beauty of mountain passes we are reminded of our membership in a complex civilization by the presence of roads and telegraph lines. Occasionally we see groups of

men inspecting the telegraph poles, other groups replacing the lines, and still others repairing the highway. Presently we hear the shrill whistle of a locomotive and then see approaching a long line of freight cars or a speedy passenger train. Far from the habitations of our fellow-citizens, we are made to feel that our lives are brought close to other people thousands of miles away by the work of these men laboring in lonely places.

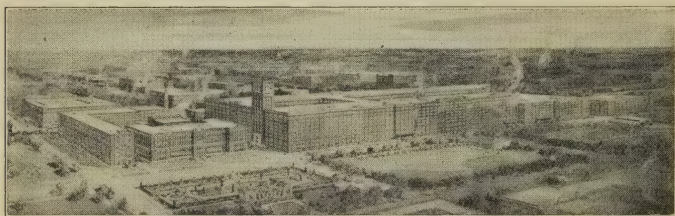


THE RAILROAD SIGNALMEN

Towers are located at convenient intervals beside the railroad tracks. By means of telephone, telegraph, and electric signals the men in these towers indicate to the engineers whether their tracks are clear.

Such work is only a small part of the service rendered by men who spend their lives in tasks connected with the business of transportation and communication. In running a railroad, for example, many different types of work are required. After a proposed right of way is surveyed and the required money is obtained for construction purposes, skillful railroad engineers plan the roadway, the bridges, and the tunnels. With them

work foremen, gangs of day laborers, skilled mechanics, and stonemasons. At the head of the company are highly trained executives to manage affairs. After trains are running over the completed tracks, division superintendents, traffic managers, passenger agents, office managers, clerks, engine drivers, brakemen, conductors, shop repairmen, switchmen, and large numbers of unskilled workmen are required to keep trains running on schedule time. Between all of them must exist feelings of mutual respect, good-will, and coöperation in order that they may all render their best service to the nation.



CHICAGO PLANT OF A MAIL-ORDER HOUSE

Thousands of families in rural districts, small towns, and cities in all sections of the United States purchase by mail millions of dollars' worth of food, clothing, farm implements, paints, furniture, etc., from this company. A railroad strike puts a stop to all this exchange of goods. (*Courtesy of Sears, Roebuck & Co.*)

How important is the service of the railroads to our nation becomes apparent during strikes of workmen. For example, a recent strike of shop repairmen made it difficult for our industries to obtain supplies of coal, and consequently the owners of steel mills were forced to bank their fires and to send home all but a handful of employees. Farmers suffered because their perishable fruits decayed in the packing houses or in the fields while awaiting shipment. Merchants suffered because they could not replenish their supplies. Travelers suffered because of the hardships encountered in completing journeys and the necessity of postponing contemplated trips. Thus this disturbance among railroad workers affected in some way nearly every man, woman, and child in America.

1. Appoint a committee of your class to report on the first Atlantic cable. Make lists of the different kinds of work that are required for its construction and operation.
2. Trace a telephone call from your own home to the home of a friend. List all the workers who have made your call possible.
3. Try to list the personal characteristics you think are necessary for a railroad man in some particular branch.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Dunn, *Community Civics for City Schools*. (Heath.)
 Chap. xiv — "Communication."
 Chap. xv — "Highways and Transportation."
2. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
 Lesson B-10 — "The Telephone and Telegraph."
 Lesson B-27 — "Good Roads."
 Lesson C- 1 — "The War and Aeroplanes."
 Lesson C- 9 — "Inventions."
 Lesson C-27 — "Early Transportation in the Far West."
 Lesson C-28 — "The First Railway Across the Continent."
 All of these lessons give interesting details on the material in this chapter. Every pupil should plan to read at least one.
3. *The American City*. This magazine contains very interesting articles on city streets. Look up files in your library.
4. Publications of the Bureau of Roads in the Department of Agriculture. Besides the monthly magazine, *Good Roads*, your librarian probably has other publications relating to roads in your state.
5. Rolt-Wheeler, *The Boy with the United States Mail*. (Lothrop.)
6. *Literary Digest*, October 9, 1920. "The Spirit of the Old Pony Express now carries the U.S. Mail."
7. *American Review of Reviews*, December, 1921. "The Human Side of the Postal System," Will H. Hays.
 This article by the Postmaster-General reveals interesting human details about our mails.
8. Williams, *The Romance of Modern Locomotion*. (Lippincott.)
9. Fowler, *Startling in Life*. (Little, Brown & Co.)
 Pages 150-161 — "The Steam Railroad."
 Pages 253-260 — "The Street Railroad."
10. Husband, *The Story of the Pullman Car*. (McClurg.)
 Chap. I — "The Birth of Railroad Transportation."
 Chap. II — "The Evolution of the Sleeping Car."
11. Field, *The Story of the Atlantic Telegraph*. (Scribner's.)
 Chap. I — "The Barrier of the Sea."
 Chap. II — "Can the Ocean be Spanned?"
 Chap. V — "Deep-Sea Soundings."
 Chap. XI — "Excitement in America."
 Chap. XVI — "Victory at Last."

12. Casson, *The History of the Telephone*. (McClurg.)
 Chap. I — "The Birth of the Telephone."
 Chap. II — "The Building of the Business."
 Chap. III — "The Holding of the Business."
13. Carter, *When Railroads were New*. (Holt.)
 Chap. II — "America's Pioneer Railroad."
 Chap. VII — "The First Transcontinental Railroad."
 Chap. IX — "Romance of a Great Railroad."
 This book brings together into a continuous story the trials and triumphs of the pioneers who planned and built some of our most notable railroads. Of special interest are the three chapters listed above.
14. Warman, *The Last Spike*. (Scribner's.)
 The first story in this volume is a tale of adventure in the construction camps of the Union Pacific. It is followed by other railroad stories.
15. Du Puy, *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles*. (Stokes.)
 Chap. XI — "Smoothing a Nation's Roads."
 Chap. XIII — "Blanketing the World with Wireless."
 Chap. XIV — "Daily Mail in the Country."
16. Franklin, *Autobiography*. (Holt.)
 Chap. III — "Arrival in Philadelphia."
 It is a most interesting account of an eighteenth century journey from Boston to Philadelphia.
17. Meeker and Driggs, *Ox-Team Days on the Oregon Trail*. (World Book Co.)
 This is an interesting biography of pioneer travel and living conditions.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Beard, *American City Government*. (Century Co.)
 Chap. IX — "The Streets of the City."
2. Bradley, *The Story of the Pony Express*. (McClurg.)
 This little book is an authentic, useful, and readable account of the pony express. It is a little too detailed to sustain the interest of the average pupil.
3. Wilcox, *The American City*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. II — "The Street."

CHAPTER XIII

CITY PLANS AND CIVIC BEAUTY

FROM your investigation of problems, your excursions, and your talks with professional men and with your public officials you have learned what you and your neighbors are doing through public and private agencies to enlarge your store of knowledge, to promote your health, to protect your life and property, to conserve the gifts of nature, to provide facilities for recreation, for communication, and for transportation, but you have not yet considered the measures necessary to make all these activities harmonize. Perhaps, for example, you have discovered that you could make better use of your neighborhood playground if it adjoined your school. Or perhaps your progress in school would be faster if your school had not been built near a railroad. Such experiences show the need for scientific planning of the various phases of our community work, that is, for bringing all our activities into such close coördination that we shall secure a maximum of convenience, healthfulness, efficiency, and beauty in our life together.

Problems for you to investigate

OUR PARK SYSTEM

One of the elements of modern city planning is to reserve for future use whatever areas of natural beauty on the outskirts are accessible and whatever smaller areas in populous sections are procurable for recreation parks and playgrounds. If a city postpones such reservations until its needs become urgent, land will be so expensive that the citizens will not feel justified in providing adequate parks. For this reason every citizen, old and young, should know whether or not wise plans are reserving attractive places for parks and playgrounds for his own enjoyment and as a heritage for future generations.

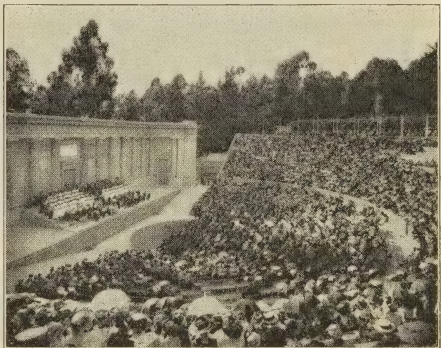
- I. Appoint a committee to interview the park commissioners in your community and to procure a map showing:
 - A. Present parks, playgrounds, public squares, boulevards, monuments, and statues.
 - B. Lands owned by the city or town and reserved for future park purposes. (If your commissioners are not able to supply a map of this kind, find out exact boundaries and make a map of your own.)
 - C. Special opportunities for recreation which each park or playground affords. (A workable method is to obtain packages of gummed circles in different colors. Use green to indicate tennis courts, blue for natatoriums, red for library branches, etc.)
 - D. Street car lines which connect the parks with closely settled areas.
 - E. Routes for automobile and bicycle travel to the parks.
 - F. Public schools.
- II. Make a careful study of your map with a view to answering the following:
 - A. Are the parks accessible?
 - B. Are the playgrounds located in more or less densely settled areas?
 - C. Are the boulevards a part of your park system, or are they the result of haphazard planning by real estate subdividers?
 - D. Are the monuments and statues part of a well-organized plan, or are they chance gifts of well-meaning citizens?
 - E. Can you make any suggestions for improving transportation to your parks? If so, what?
 - F. Have playgrounds been planned to assist in meeting the needs of the schools? If so, how?
- III. From reports of your park commissioners and from your city or town charter find out:
 - A. How are your parks and playgrounds supported?
 1. How much money was devoted to park purposes last year?
 2. If possible, get details of the way in which this money was spent.
 - B. How do your park commissioners obtain their positions?

Are they paid for their services? What is the length of their term?

- IV. A. Who are your present park officials? Is their work satisfactory? Give reasons.
- B. Appoint a committee of your class to arrange for an interview with one of your park officials. If possible, invite him to speak to your class on some phase of his work.
- V. From the information collected thus far make a large map of your community, indicating the most beautiful parks, schools, public buildings, statues, boulevards, squares, monuments, etc. Work out a route of travel to include as many as possible. Then appoint a committee to mount your map in some attractive form, and to make arrangements for placing it in some suitable public location frequented by tourists and strangers in your community.

I. The foundations of modern city plans and civic beauty were laid in ancient times.

In the ancient world there were numerous important cities such as Athens, Rome, Alexandria, Jerusalem, Babylon, and Rhodes. A brief consideration of Athens, the finest of ancient cities, will show to what extent cities had developed. The most important achievement of Athens was the construction and maintenance of public works. For example, a good supply of water was brought to the city from the neighboring hills by an underground system of pipes. But, since few houses had their own water connections, the people bathed at the



THE GREEK THEATER AT BERKELEY
CALIFORNIA

This open-air theater is considered one of the best reproductions of the structures erected in ancient Greece. (Courtesy of San Francisco Chamber of Commerce.)

public baths and carried their drinking water from the public fountains to their own homes. There were few paved streets in the city, but well-graded, well-paved roads led into the surrounding country. However, the city's greatest expenditures were for public buildings. These were for the construction of temples, like the beautiful Parthenon, theaters which the modern world vainly tries to imitate, large gymnasias for the physical training of the city's boys and men,



THE SAN FRANCISCO CITY HALL

Much of the architectural design of this building is Greek in origin. Many of our most beautiful public buildings follow the lines developed in Athens nearly thirty centuries ago. (Courtesy of San Francisco Chamber of Commerce.)

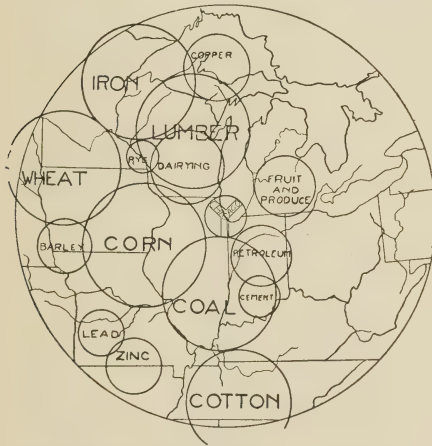
and beautiful monuments. The group of public buildings on the Acropolis, the fortified height of Athens, alone cost the equivalent of thirty million dollars, a huge sum for a city to spend on public works twenty-four centuries ago. All these public buildings were at once the result and the source of much artistic expression, for assiduous architects designed them, eminent sculptors beautified them, and appreciative citizens enjoyed them. Beauty of surroundings stimulated clear thinking which produced an enduring literature. In

these ways ancient Athens is an inspiring example to which our modern cities can look back with envy and admiration.

1. Why are many of our modern communities spending large sums of money on beautiful schools when it is possible to erect less beautiful buildings cheaper?
2. Why do we have expensive pictures and statuary in our schools and other public buildings?
3. Is there any relation between the appearance of your classroom and the quality of your work? If so, what?

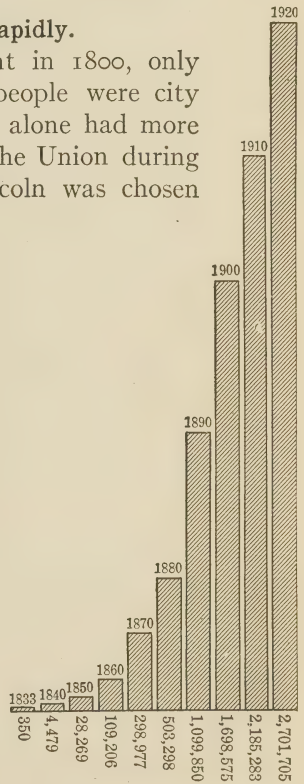
2. Our modern cities are growing rapidly.

When Jefferson became President in 1800, only four per cent of our five million people were city dwellers. In 1920, New York City alone had more inhabitants than all the states in the Union during Jefferson's presidency. When Lincoln was chosen



SOME REASONS FOR CHICAGO'S GROWTH

Most of the railroads from East to West have their terminals in Chicago because of its location at the foot of Lake Michigan. Most of the products of the surrounding states are brought to Chicago and then distributed to all parts of the world. Chicago is the place where the water transportation on the Great Lakes meets the railroad transportation system of the nation. These factors, combined with the wealth of the Middle West, have made Chicago a great city. (Courtesy of Chicago Chamber of Commerce.)



CHICAGO'S GROWTH BY DECADES

(Courtesy of Chicago Association of Commerce.)

President in 1860, about one sixth of our people lived in towns and cities containing a population exceeding 2500. In 1920, when our population was over one hundred and five million people, about one half lived in towns and cities containing more than 2500 inhabitants. Thus, in sixty years, the percentage of people in urban communities trebled. As the total population in 1920 was about three and one third times as great as in 1860, there were ten times as many people in urban communities in 1920 as there were in 1860.

Since 1900, our largest cities have added millions to their rolls. Chicago, a city barely eighty years old in 1920, had a population exceeding two million seven hundred thousand people, and was rejoicing in her million residents added since 1900. Detroit grew from a city of 285,704 in 1900 to one nearly four times as large in 1920. In the West the growth of cities has been even more rapid than in the East. Los Angeles had 102,479 people in 1900, and 575,480 in 1920. The following table gives information about the growth of our eighteen largest cities:

CITY	POPULATION		PER CENT OF INCREASE IN TEN YEARS
	1920	1910	
New York	5,621,151	4,766,883	17.9
Chicago	2,701,212	2,185,283	23.6
Philadelphia	1,823,158	1,549,008	17.7
Detroit	993,739	465,766	113.4
Cleveland	796,836	560,663	42.1
St. Louis	773,000	687,029	12.5
Boston	747,923	670,585	11.5
Baltimore	733,826	558,485	34.4
Pittsburgh	588,193	533,995	10.2
Los Angeles	575,480	319,198	80.3
San Francisco	508,410	416,912	21.9
Buffalo	505,875	423,715	19.04
Milwaukee	457,147	373,857	22.3
Washington	437,414	331,069	32.1
Newark	415,609	347,469	19.6
Cincinnati	401,158	363,591	10.3
New Orleans	387,408	339,975	14.3
Minneapolis	380,498	301,408	26.2

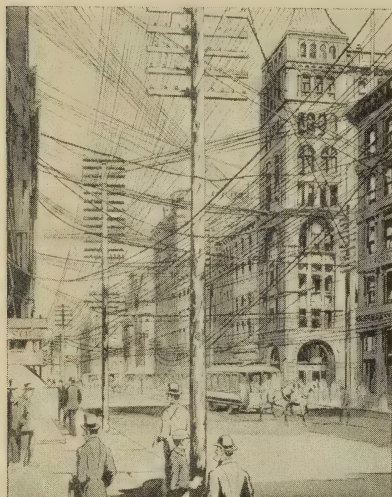
1. Get the census returns for your city or nearest town for as many previous years as you can. When was your city or town growing most rapidly? What made it grow?
2. Get census returns for your state. Compare the rate of increase in your city or town with the increase in the entire state.

3. Many growing communities are planned in piecemeal fashion.

When the owners of a tract of land near a city decide to subdivide it into residence lots they frequently employ a surveyor to lay out the streets and alleys, an engineer to plan for the water supply and sewers, a landscape gardener to supervise the planting of trees and shrubs, and an architect to design the homes. Unless the city has planning regulations to the contrary, the streets of the new subdivision do not need to be extensions of other streets in the vicinity. The owners may decide that neighboring streets are too far apart to admit profitable subdivision of their land. Or they may decide that it will be more profitable to plan lots large enough to accommodate spacious houses and lawns. No matter what is the reason, the decision to lay out streets which are not extensions of neighboring streets means inconvenience to residents of neighboring areas. It may also mean that at some future date it will be necessary for that city to expend vast sums of money in an effort to inject order and system into the plan of its streets.

Another result of permitting private individuals to plan their own improvements without arranging for the future needs of the community becomes obvious when a city decides to construct a main sewer or a subway under any important street. Under that street there may be water mains, sewers, gas pipes, conduits for electric power lines and for telegraph and telephone lines, subways for delivery of supplies and removal of wastes from large stores and office buildings, and private vaults for the storage of coal. But the city rarely has maps or records which show the exact location of these sub-

terranean structures. Therefore deep excavations must be made across the entire width of the street at intervals of



A SCENE ON BROADWAY, NEW YORK, IN
1890, SHOWING THE DENSITY OF
OVERHEAD WIRES

every hundred feet or so in order to obtain the accurate information necessary to planning the new sewer or subway. All this needless labor and expense could have been avoided by careful foresight, diligent record-keeping, and wise planning.

1. Are there any evil results of piecemeal planning of the streets in your neighborhood? If so, show in exactly what way they are injuring your community.

2. Have any recent attempts been made by your community to remedy evils due to lack of planning? If so, what?

4. The arrangement of a city's streets is a fundamental part of its plan.

William Penn was the first American colonist to plan a city. He laid out Philadelphia on the checkerboard or gridiron plan (all the streets crossing at right angles) with four small parks to mark the corners of the city and one to mark the center. This plan has several advantages: namely, it takes a minimum of land for street purposes; it makes all the building lots of convenient rectangular shape; and strangers are enabled to find their destination easily. Its greatest defects are that it increases distances in traveling from one part of the city to another, and that its monotonous right angles make city beautification very difficult.

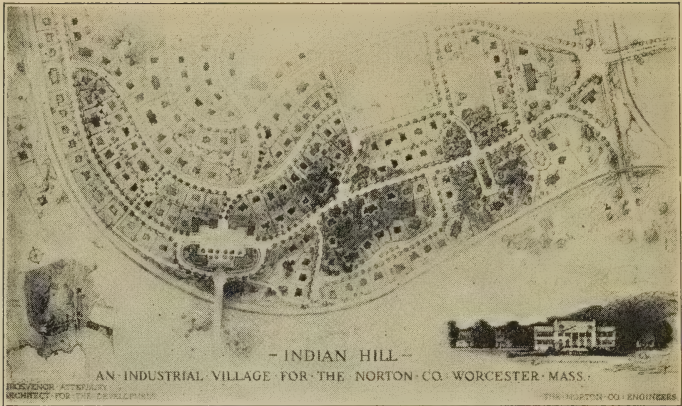
Washington, Jefferson, and the French architect, L'Enfant, who planned our national capital, used an entirely different idea, one which makes the plan of the city of Washington a world model. The city's main thoroughfares radiate from the Capitol like the spokes of a wheel, while the less important streets are at right angles to one another. This street plan enables traffic to go rapidly from one section of the city to another. It also makes city beautification feasible because the small open spaces at street intersections admit of small parks, and every thoroughfare ends in the beautiful grounds around the national Capitol. Probably no city in the world has more stately vistas, more varied architecture, more attractive residential districts, or more ample opportunity to cultivate civic beauty.



THE SAME SCENE AFTER THE OVERHEAD WIRES WERE REPLACED BY UNDERGROUND CABLES

Nearly all our large progressive cities have removed unsightly telephone poles from their main thoroughfares. (Courtesy of American Telephone and Telegraph Company.)

Another type of city plan commends itself to cities on hills. When either the gridiron plan or the Washington plan is superimposed on hills, some of the streets are so steep that traffic cannot utilize them. The most natural plan for such cities is to make their streets follow the contour of the hills as do the streets of Berkeley, California, of Portland, Oregon, and of the newer parts of Boston, Massachusetts. Cities built on rivers have discovered that they must plan some of their streets parallel to the river and others radiating from the important commercial center. Likewise, many cities on



GENERAL PLAN OF INDIAN HILL, AN INDUSTRIAL VILLAGE FOR THE
NORTON COMPANY AT WORCESTER, MASSACHUSETTS

The plans for this village were drawn by the New York architect and town planner, Grosvenor Atterbury. Notice how the streets curve around the hillsides and lead to the civic center. (*Courtesy of Grosvenor Atterbury and the National Housing Association.*)

the ocean and on the Great Lakes realize the necessity of streets parallel to and radiating from their water front. The



LOOKING UP INDIAN HILL ROAD

This is one of the streets in the town plan shown above. The winding streets make traffic on the hillsides easy and help to give distinction to the dwellings. (*Courtesy of the National Housing Association.*)

essential part of all these street plans is to enable traffic to go easily and quickly to any part of the city.

1. Appoint a committee to secure from your Chamber of Commerce or other source a map of your community showing the street plan. Do its general outlines follow the plan of

Washington, of Philadelphia, or some special design suited to the local topography?

2. Do you see any ways in which this plan could be improved?
3. If there is a planning commission in your community, appoint a committee to obtain some of its reports on local street planning.

5. Cities require carefully planned transportation systems to meet the needs of their industries.

The source from which a city draws its life is its industries. Unless there are adequate facilities for bringing food and raw material into the city and for transporting manufactured and finished products from the city, the city will not come into prominence as an industrial center. The splendid harbors of Boston, San Francisco, New York, Duluth, Seattle, and San Diego have helped to attract industries to these places. So



THE UNION STATION IN WASHINGTON, D.C.

All the railroads enter and leave Washington by way of this terminal. By their coöperation in building this Union Station, the railroads have obtained increased accommodations for their passengers and better facilities for themselves. (*Courtesy of Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company.*)

important is the factor of water transportation in the growth of industrial centers that the fourteen largest cities in the United States are all situated on waterways. Plans for the future development of such cities involve careful consideration of the advantages to be gained by the greatest possible utilization of the water front.

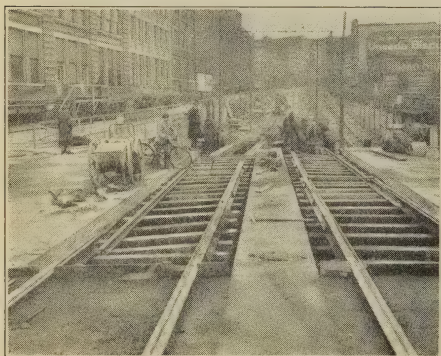
Like all other cities, these communities on waterways face the problem of railroad transportation. It is one of the chief aims of city planning to provide railroads with proper access to the city and with convenient terminals. In nearly all our large cities several railroads enter from various directions and place their terminals at different points, but provide no con-

necting links. Therefore an industry close to one railroad must pay large sums of money for trucking its produce to the terminals of the other roads which it desires to use. If all the terminals were connected, all the industries would save these needless trucking costs, would forward their shipments and receive their raw materials more promptly, and would thus enjoy greater convenience.

1. What railroads enter your town or city? Is there more than one freight terminal? If so, how are goods transferred from one road to another?
 2. Is your town or city situated on navigable water? If so, what provisions are made for utilizing the water front?
 3. Do you see any reasons why your community should be interested in the architecture and general appearance of your railroad stations?
- 6. The street-car system is another phase of the transportation problem.**

If a city contains broad, diagonal streets which connect the

business districts with the suburbs, street-cars can carry workers a long distance in a short time, but if the streets are narrow or are so arranged that workers must transfer from one car to another at several points, the outlying suburbs will not grow rapidly, and the majority of the workers will continue to live in



Courtesy of Chamber of Commerce, Knoxville, Tennessee
REMODELING A CITY STREET

crowded tenements close to the shops and factories. Some large cities are attempting to solve this problem by constructing elevated lines and subways. For example, the extensions of Chicago's elevated lines have enabled thousands of workers

to make their homes in the beautiful suburbs. New York and Boston have elaborate subway systems which also assist the city workers to enjoy suburban life. The ideal of city planners is a local transportation system which will enable every worker to have his home away from the noise, grime, and crowds of the industrial section.

1. How is your community solving its problems of local transportation? On the map used in Section 4 indicate the principal lines.
 2. What is the connection between the street plan and the local transportation system?
 3. What is the relation between the local transportation system and good housing conditions?
 4. In what ways does an efficient local transportation system promote civic beauty? Participation in civic affairs?
- 7. Nearly all city plans provide for zoning.**

Zoning is the process of dividing a city into areas to be used for distinct purposes. Most cities need to provide for:

1. A wholesale and industrial section.
2. A retail business section.
3. Restricted residential sections.
4. Other residential areas permitting apartments and certain retail stores.



STATE STREET, CHICAGO

Along this street are located some of the largest department stores in the world. Districts of this kind require special provisions for fire and police protection, for traffic regulation, for water supply, sewage disposal, distribution of fuel and other supplies, and mail service. (Courtesy of Chicago Boosters' Publicity Club.)

Zoning usually provides also for the height of office buildings in the retail business section, for special protection against fire in the industrial sections, for the cost of the houses built in a restricted residential section, for the size of lots, the width of streets, the location of parks and playgrounds, and for the special needs of apartment house areas.

When a city establishes zones it gains several distinct advantages. For example, its residential districts are protected against the intrusion of factories, garages, and retail establishments. Then, a large number of our expensive school buildings are decreasing in value because factories and railroads have been built close to them. In such schools teachers and pupils suffer from the effects of distracting noises, and of murky surroundings. Also, the cost of laying sewers and water mains in an unzoned city is expensive; but if a city is properly zoned, city engineers can figure just what size of pipes will be necessary to meet the demands when the community is fully built up, and can lay these pipes at the outset, knowing that they will not have to be replaced by larger pipes in a short time.

1. Is the work of a fire department in an unzoned city likely to be more or less efficient than in a zoned city? Why? Do the same statements apply to a police department?
2. Is there any relation between the cost of street paving and city zoning? If so, what?
3. Is your community zoned? If so, mark the zones on your street map.

8. Many cities are planning civic centers.

A civic center is a group of public buildings arranged for convenience, beauty, and inspiration. In the ordinary town or city this group usually includes the city or town hall, the county court-house, the public library, the civic auditorium, and the post-office. Of course every one knows that a civic center cannot be built in a day or in a year. It must be the result of patient planning over a long period of time. One by

one, as the old buildings require replacement, harmonious new ones can be erected in some spacious, accessible, and beautiful place. San Francisco has an inspiring civic center consisting of the city hall, public library, civic auditorium, and state building flanking a plaza. Cleveland and Des Moines have planned civic centers on their water fronts, and Denver is replacing her outgrown public buildings by more



A MUNICIPAL LIBRARY

This library is part of San Francisco's twenty-million-dollar civic center. On the other three sides of the central park are the Civic Auditorium, the City Hall, and the State Building. (*Courtesy of San Francisco Chamber of Commerce.*)

beautiful and convenient new ones. Doubtless much of the inspiration for this civic center movement evident in most of our progressive towns and cities is drawn from the arrangement of buildings in our national capital. There, the architectural beauty of the public buildings is enhanced by their location on commanding elevations along stately avenues. A visit to our national civic center in Washington develops in the good citizen a strong desire to make the public buildings

of his own town or city as beautiful, as æsthetic, and as inspiring as the resources of his community permit.

1. Is your community planning a civic center? If so, where is the site? Why was the location chosen? Have any of the proposed buildings been erected?
2. Who is paying the bills for constructing civic centers? How?



OLD GAY STREET VIADUCT

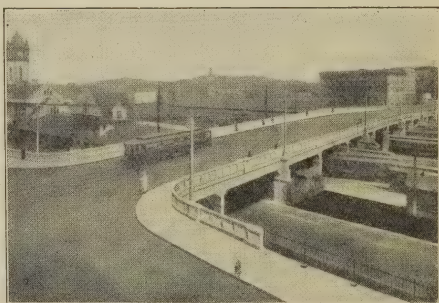
(Courtesy of Chamber of Commerce, Knoxville, Tennessee.)

9. City beautification is emphasized in every phase of city planning.

One of the great arguments for planning diagonal and radiating streets is that they enable our cities to utilize intersections for small parks, for the location of attractive

rest-rooms, and as sites for pieces of statuary. These open vistas encourage the construction of beautiful private and

public buildings on the adjoining lots. In order that our streets may be more convenient and less hazardous our large cities like New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia are following the plan carried out in the central sections of Washington and are removing unsightly telegraph and telephone



NEW GAY STREET VIADUCT

Even industrial sections have possibilities of beauty.
(Courtesy of Chamber of Commerce, Knoxville, Tennessee.)

poles and are placing the lines in conduits below the street level. By locating her civic center on the bank of the Des

Moines River, Des Moines is showing American cities how to beautify the water front, and is also stimulating the building of beautiful bridges. Cities like Knoxville, Tennessee, are replacing their old viaducts with artistic new ones. Boston has enacted rigid laws which limit the height of buildings. This is resulting in the formation of a more sightly skyline. Nearly every progressive city in America is adding new acres to its public parks and is employing landscape gardeners to utilize their skill in adorning them. All these and similar undertakings are destined to redeem our cities from their ugliness and to transform them into worthy habitations of good citizens.

1. Are you a good citizen when you throw waste paper in public places? Why?
2. In what ways can you make your school grounds more attractive? Arrange with your teacher and principal to carry out some of these suggestions.
3. In what ways can you make your yard at home more attractive? Is it fair to judge a man's citizenship by the appearance of his yard? Why? Report to the class the ways in which you have helped to beautify your home and yard.

10. Architects are master builders.

A large part of planning for telephones, electricity, gas and water supplies, and for sewage disposal for a city is the work of civil, electrical, and sanitary engineers. But the task of laying out a city's streets and designing its buildings is the field of the architect. A successful architect is an artist of great mechanical skill, for by his touch he must transform masses of wood, cement, and stone into stately schoolhouses, majestic public buildings, as well as comfortable homes, attractive and convenient industrial buildings, beautiful bridges, and classic monuments. Like L'Enfant, the French architect, architects must be men of imagination. They must be able to look at barren hills and see a town with well-arranged streets, industries, schools, and churches. Again, they must have the ability to look at a vacant corner and see

rising therefrom appropriate buildings. To its architects a community entrusts the right and the duty of making it an attractive, healthful, and convenient place for its residents.



BRIDGE ON THE COLUMBIA HIGHWAY, OREGON

This highway along the Columbia River is one of the most beautiful drives in America.
(*Courtesy of Bureau of Roads, Washington, D.C.*)

1. What special training must architects have? What special ability must they possess in order to profit from this training?
2. Does your town or city employ an architect? If so, try to arrange to have him tell your class about his work.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Evans, *Town Improvement*. (Appleton.)
 - Chap. I — "Forces Creating the Town."
 - Chap. II — "The Town Plan in General."
 - Chap. III — "The Street System."
 - Chap. IV — "Traffic Circulation."
 - Chap. V — "The Railroad and the Town."

These chapters put emphasis on some of the points discussed in connection with city planning.

2. Lapp, *Our America*. (Bobbs-Merrill Co.)
 Chap. ix — "Some City Problems."
 Most of this chapter deals with city planning.
3. Robinson, *City Planning*. (Putnams.)
Modern Civic Art. (Putnams.)
 A large part of these two books is too detailed for careful reading; but the pictures are very beautiful. Every pupil should spend at least an hour looking at them.
4. *The American City*, May, 1921 — "Bridgeport's Experiment in Housing."
 This article tells what Bridgeport, Connecticut, is doing to help its workers to own their own homes.
 Every issue of this magazine is full of information about recent city undertakings. Look up the last copy in your library.
5. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
 Lesson A-24 — "Concentration of Population in Great Cities."
 Lesson B-24 — "Building the Industrial City of Gary."
 Gary is a good example of a city planned to secure the best possible conditions for an industry.
 Lesson C-25 — "A Seaport as a Center of Concentration of Population and Wealth."
 The lesson is a study of the geographic advantages which have made New York our greatest seaport.
6. Beard, *American City Government*. (Century Co.)
 Chap. i — "The People of a City."
 Chap. xiv — "City Planning."
7. *American Review of Reviews*, March, 1918.
 - a. "Chicago, North America's Transportation Center," Geo. K. Sikes.
 This article tells what factors have combined to make Chicago a great city and what its present problems are.
 - b. "Chicago's Improvement Plans," Robert H. Moulton. This article tells how Chicago is meeting her problems of present growth and is planning for future development.
8. Fowler, *Starting in Life*. (Little, Brown & Co.)
 Pages 28-38 — "The Architect."
9. James, *The Building of Cities*. (Macmillan.)
 This book contains a series of informal conversations about city planning.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Zueblin, *American Municipal Progress*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. ii — "The City Portal."
 Chap. v — "The City's Wastes."
 Chap. xv — "Parks and Boulevards."
 Chap. xvi — "Public Recreation."
 Chap. xvii — "City Planning."
 These chapters are mines of information on the subjects listed.
2. Wilcox, *Great Cities in America*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. i — "Introductory."
 Chap. viii — "The Problem of the Great Cities."

3. Cooke, *Our Cities Awake*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)
Chap. ix — "The City as an Ally of Industrial Progress."
The author, formerly Director of Public Works of Philadelphia, approaches his topic from the standpoint of a resident of Philadelphia.
4. Howe, *The City*. (Scribner's.)
Chap. iii — "The Profit Account."
Chap. iv — "The Loss Account."
Chap. v — "The American City at Work."
These three chapters are a splendid analysis of the losses and gains of urban life.
5. Simkhovitch, *The City Worker's World*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. i — "The Industrial Family."
Chap. ii — "The Standard of Living."
Chap. v — "At Work."
These chapters give a clear picture of the surroundings of the city worker in New York City.
6. *National Municipal Review*, June, 1922. "Modern City Planning — Its Meanings and Methods," Adams.

CHAPTER XIV

THE CITIZEN AND HIS WORK

THUS far we have gained some insight into a number of occupations through which the members of our community are serving one another. We have reviewed briefly the benefits which accrue to the community from our teachers, social service workers, journalists, physicians, policemen, firemen, engineers, railroad workers, architects, and others. However, we have not yet discussed the reasons why men must work in some occupation, or what personal satisfaction we may derive from days spent in strenuous toil.

Problems for you to investigate

THE OCCUPATIONAL LIFE OF OUR COMMUNITY

I. Get or make a large map of your town, your neighborhood, your high-school district, or your city. Cut it into sections in such a way that each member of your class will have the map of a small area convenient for him to explore. The class will decide on some system of recording the data asked for below so that all may use the same method. Each pupil will make a survey of his area and mark the following according to the system adopted by the class:

1. Lots used for stores, shops, office-buildings, theaters, etc.
2. Lots used for residence purposes.
3. Sections used for railroad yards, freight handling, etc.
4. Sections used for manufacturing purposes.
5. Sections used for agricultural purposes.
6. Sections used for schools, parks, open squares, playgrounds, etc.
7. Vacant property.

Upon completing the survey of his district each pupil will transfer his information to a permanent map which the class will retain for reference in this and future studies.

II. Choose one of the occupations of your community in which you

are particularly interested. In your school library you will probably find numerous books on occupations as well as the publications of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. Consult the volume of the last federal census which deals with occupations and includes not only statistics about occupations but also valuable reading material. From information gained through this reading and from talks with workers in the occupation in your community, organize a report along the following lines:

1. Does the occupation offer permanent employment? If not, is there any other similar work available in times of unemployment?
2. Does the work call for some particular talent or skill, like the artistic ability of the designer? If so, is your work in school developing this talent? In what ways?
3. What are the possibilities of promotion?
4. Does the work render a real service to the community?
5. Does the work pay enough to adult employees to enable them to maintain an American standard of living?
6. Are the workers in this occupation subject to any occupational diseases? Are these diseases due to faulty ventilation, poor machinery, insufficient light, or other preventable causes? If so, what is being done to promote the health of the workers?

III. Pupils interested in the same occupations will hold conferences, obtain photographs and other illustrative material, and will produce a committee report. When all these reports from all the committees are assembled, they may be bound in attractive form and presented to the local library where all people interested in vocations may receive the benefit of this accurate and up-to-date material.

1. Nature's laws force man to work.

When the first colonists bound for Virginia sailed down the Thames late in 1606, they had visions of adventure, mines, and golden sands, a glorious holiday in a bounteous wilderness. For the most part, the group that landed in Jamestown, Virginia, early in 1607 had no realization of the strenuous life of pioneers and was unused to manual labor of any kind. Be-

cause of their frenzy for discovering gold mines they neither constructed comfortable dwellings nor did they cultivate the soil. When autumn came, nearly one third of the little group had died of starvation and exposure, and the remainder were in such misery as we are scarcely able to imagine. The savior of the colony was Captain John Smith who compelled the people to plant crops and to build cabins. His dictum was, "He that will not work shall not eat." This statement embodies Nature's inexorable law that man must work in order to survive. Since Nature has been bounteous in her supply of raw materials but parsimonious in shaping them for the immediate satisfaction of our needs, most raw materials must be transformed into usable goods by our intelligent, continuous labor. Hence man has been compelled to sow crops, to tend flocks and herds, to spin, weave, fish, and hunt since the early era of his existence. It is because men and women have been working during these long ages that we have our culture, our stores of wealth, our opportunities for enjoyment, and also our obligation to leave behind us increased culture, wealth, and opportunities for future generations.

1. Make a list of the kinds of food you had for breakfast this morning. How many of these foods were in their natural state? Where were they obtained? Were they available to your grandparents in this season of the year?
2. Are there any members of your family who do not work? Why are they permitted to eat?
3. Are you fulfilling your obligation to work when you are attending school? Why?

2. Our people are working to satisfy wants and to conserve wealth.

Men work to-day, at least in part, for the same reason for which they worked under the leadership of John Smith, namely, to provide the necessities of life. According to the 1920 reports of the United States Census Bureau, over thirty-

three million males and over eight and one half million females over ten years of age, or approximately forty per cent of our entire population, are working in gainful occupations. Some are engaged in tilling the soil, others in extracting metals from the earth, others in transportation and communication, others in commerce and manufacture, and others in profes-



MAKING GARTERS IN A NEW YORK TENEMENT

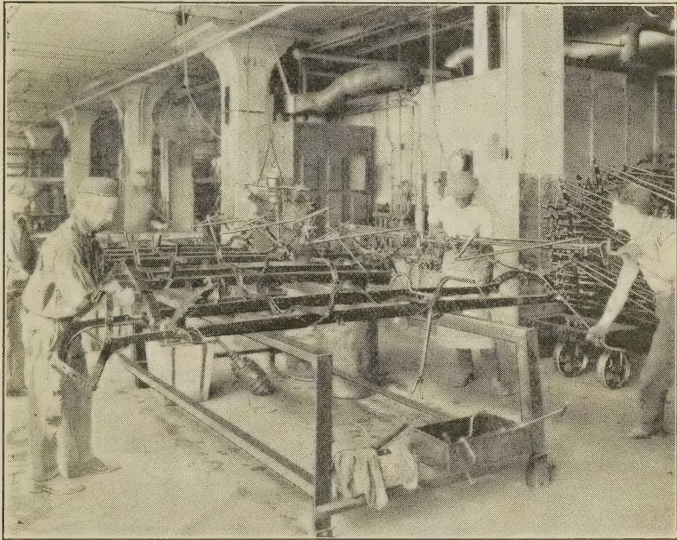
Necessity compels thousands of little children to assist their widowed mothers to add to the family income. (*Courtesy of the National Child Labor Committee.*)

sional life. From an individual standpoint we are earning money to spend on food and clothing, shelter, recreation, and intellectual and spiritual needs, and also to save and invest. From a community standpoint industries exist to supply the demands of consumers, and they earn money with which to pay their current expenses and to provide a replacement fund. Thus both individuals and great industries function to satisfy wants and to conserve wealth.

Furthermore, most of the twenty-five million children now in our schools must become active producers as soon as they leave school. If they do not develop the ability to produce

more than their needs require, they will be unable to accumulate savings, and unable to contribute to the greater prosperity of our nation, for the success of our nation to-day depends as much upon individual effort as did the survival of the Jamestown colony. Work is basic. There is no other means by which our wants can be satisfied or a surplus accumulated for future use.

1. Boys and girls in school are working for the United States. What does this statement mean? Do you agree? Why?
2. If only forty per cent of our people are engaged in gainful occupations, what are the others doing?
3. In what ways does individual thrift promote community prosperity?



SCENE IN AN AUTOMOBILE FACTORY

These men are performing valuable service by making careful adjustments of the parts in the assembly of this automobile. (*Courtesy of Ford Motor Company.*)

3. All work is valuable social service.

For many years we have been accustomed to think that certain vocations, like medicine and the ministry, contribute

in a special way to the well-being of the community, and that they along with similar occupations constitute social service. However, other work is just as fundamental to our welfare. The farmer, the merchant, the plumber, the carpenter, the mechanic, the housekeeper, and the cook are in constant demand. If they relax their labor for even a short period, the loss of their services is immediately felt. By careful examination of productive vocations we shall see that all work is social service in the sense that it contributes to our needs and happiness.

1. Make a list of the kinds of workers needed to lay water pipes. Is this work essential to the happiness of city dwellers? Is it social service?
2. Compare the work of the farmer and the physician. Whose services do we need most frequently? Which vocation is more strenuous? Which involves the longer hours? Which requires greater physical discomforts?

4. Man's greatest happiness depends largely upon his choice of a suitable vocation.

With only a few exceptions all our boys and girls by necessity must become breadwinners. Upon the wise selection of a vocation much depends. This selection is more difficult now than it was in times past because man's needs have multiplied so many times and the division of labor has developed to such an extent that there are now thousands of ways of earning a living. From all these each boy and girl must choose one. It matters little what the work is so long as the worker is fitted for it and likes it. Something within the worker must respond to the manner of life and the mode of thought demanded by the work. There must be the feeling that this employment is the best possible kind of work leading to the greatest opportunity for this citizen to add to the world's wealth. In this kind of effort human beings realize their greatest happiness. When a boy considers that he will probably spend eight or nine hours a day for thirty or forty

years in some sort of work, he will see the paramount necessity of choosing a suitable vocation.

There is no set age at which all boys and girls should be required to tell what occupation they propose to follow. Some are forced to make this decision early, while others may defer



ONE WAY OF EARNING A LIVING

This group of miners is employed in one of the mines at Coal City, Illinois. (*Copyright, Underwood & Underwood.*)

it indefinitely. The chief consideration is that it should be made only after an extensive study of vocations, but in time to procure training which will be of inestimable value in all later efforts.

1. Very few housewives are satisfied with their domestic help. Why? Is it right to feel that nobody else can do our work as well as we ourselves do it? Why?
2. A man gets out of his work what he puts into it. Do you agree? Why?

5. What can boys and girls do to choose their life work intelligently?

a. *They can acquire a knowledge of their own personality.* By personality we mean that combination of likes and dislikes, of physical strength, of moral fiber, of abilities and limitations which make each one of us an individual different from everyone else. Choice of work should be such as to make you feel that your personality enables you to labor more energetically, more successfully, and more happily than the average member of that vocational group.

b. *They can seek extensive information concerning the work in many vocations.* Too frequently young people decide upon their life work with too little information, or they drift from place to place in the hope that chance will finally locate them in a satisfactory vocation. So numerous and so varied are the means of livelihood that search should be made in many directions. Chief among profitable sources of information are talks with business men, extensive reading in books and magazines that discuss the world's work, experience gained in summer employment, and biographies of successful men. The boy or girl who has acquired this sort of acquaintance with the world's work and an insight into his own personal qualifications has an excellent chance to choose a vocation that will enable him to perform his highest social service and to secure his greatest personal satisfaction.

c. *They can learn of the opportunities for advancement in the different vocations.* Some of the positions which offer the best pay to boys and girls leaving school are blind-alley jobs, that is, work that leads nowhere, like that of the newsboy, the delivery boy, the untrained clerk, etc. These tasks are essential to our industrial life as it is now organized; but the person who exercises intelligent foresight recognizes these as temporary jobs, and as he continues in them keeps on searching for an opportunity to obtain work in his chosen line. The man financially successful to-day is almost always the one who has prepared for and entered an occupation where men are needed,

and where ability and willingness to work intelligently are rewarded by advancement.

d. They can estimate the expense of preparation for work in each occupational field. Boys and girls must analyze their own economic condition and determine whether they can afford the time and cost of preparation for their chosen vocation. Demands of dependent and partially dependent relatives frequently render advanced vocational training impossible. However, an ambitious boy or girl unencumbered by dependents can, with careful management, hard work, and much sacrifice, secure as good training as the children of the richest millionaire.

1. Have you ever worked during your summer vacations? Which factor did you consider of greatest importance when you applied for the position, wages, or opportunity for advancement, or general experience?
 2. In what ways is choice of work for a summer vacation different from permanent choice of work?
 3. In what ways does the good citizen serve his community when he prepares himself for productive work?
- 6. Many women are working in gainful occupations; but a woman's primary vocation is home-making.**

Women are now entering into agricultural, commercial, industrial, and professional pursuits in greater numbers than at any time in the world's history. According to the 1920 Census more than twenty per cent of all the people engaged in gainful occupations were women. The reasons for this are to be found in our changed attitude toward women employed outside the home and in the increasing cost of living. Therefore careful students of woman's relation to the world's work are advising all girls to equip themselves for some vocation outside the home. Such training has two purposes; first, it enables a girl to realize some of her ambitions to be a part of the workaday world, and second, it gives her a breadth of experience which enables her to understand the difficulties involved in earning money, the nervous strain of daily work, and the disadvantages in many fields of endeavor.

In spite of the increasing numbers of women in gainful occupations woman's primary vocation will probably always be home-making. Just as a successful man's chief interest is



A PRIZE-WINNER

Many women are successfully managing fruit farms, cattle ranches, poultry ranches, and other agricultural enterprises.

in his vocation, so most women find their greatest happiness in the supervision of a household and in the care of children. Successful home-making demands intelligence and training. For example, the home-maker must know enough about textiles to enable her to select durable materials for clothing; she must know enough about foods to enable her to plan and to prepare an

economical, nutritious, balanced diet for her family; she must have enough artistic training to assist her in the choice and arrangement of suitable furnishings for her home; she must know the real value of many articles to enable her to spend wisely, and she must have enough knowledge of the world's work to enable her to sympathize with her husband's difficulties and to prepare her to guide her children. For these purposes our schools are giving special courses for girls in foods, clothing, household art, home management, and home-making. By the intelligent use of such knowledge a woman can make her home a fitting place for the rearing of American citizens.

1. Man is the great earner, woman the great spender. Do you agree? Does this mean that women are by nature extravagant?
2. Man earns; woman saves. Explain. List the ways in which a thrifty housewife saves money.

7. Advancement in one's vocation requires hard work.

Once a young man has chosen his vocation and entered it, his problem is to make good. Space permits the enumeration of but a few of the methods by which men obtain success in their occupations. Aside from the essential moral qualifications hard work seems to count for most. Usually it is not superior ability or exceptional intelligence that gains promo-



AN AUTOMOBILE SHOP IN AN EVENING SCHOOL

These young men are fitting themselves for better positions in their chosen vocation.
(Courtesy of F. L. Morse.)

tion for the young man, but unlimited, sustained interest in his work and determined effort to learn the business at the earliest possible opportunity. This young man finds the relation of his work to that of other men in his vocation. He outgrows his work, not in his own mind, but in the mind of his employer to whom he becomes so useful that he is advanced to a position of more responsibility. Here, in turn, he works to outgrow this position, and further advancement

results. By this process he is not only attaining success in his chosen work, but he is also developing his character. Therefore he is rewarded with a deep respect for himself and lasting satisfaction, for he feels that his work is valuable to his community.

Not only must a youth obtain training before entering his occupation, and not only must he work on the particular task to which he is assigned, but he must also continue his vocational training after his employment begins. Competition for the better positions is growing stronger and stronger, and success comes in the vast majority of cases only to him who is better qualified than others. No matter what one's work, be it farming, carpentry, medicine, or engineering, the ambitious worker must keep himself informed of the progress in his vocation. He must read books and magazines, and if opportunity permits, he must spend a part of his leisure time in attending evening schools, conventions, and lectures. Since new inventions and discoveries and man's changing wants all tend to modify the work of the world, the man who is to progress most rapidly in his vocation, or the man who makes a profitable change in his vocation at the time of some readjustment in working conditions is he who has continued his training and thereby prepared himself for new and greater responsibility.

1. Choose any vocation you wish, and show by what steps a man may reach the highest position of responsibility in it.
2. Do most men receive promotion because of favoritism or because of merit? If a man secures a position through favoritism how does he keep it?
3. It is generally admitted that "luck" plays a considerable part in securing promotion. In what way does education increase one's "luck"?

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.

Lesson B-8 — "Finding a Job." The aim is to show the importance of securing the right person for the right place both for his own sake and for the good of the community

Lesson A-9 — "Social Control." It tells of the difficulties under which certain kinds of work are performed and the laws passed to safeguard workers.

Lesson B-11 — "The Work of Women." It is a study of woman's part in our present system.

Lesson A-15 — "Woman as the Family Purchaser." The lesson emphasizes one of the qualifications of a successful home-maker.

Lesson B-28 — "Women in Industry." It shows how women have followed the old home occupations into the factories. Emphasis is on the necessity of safeguarding women at work.

2. Adams, *Description of Industry*. (Holt.)

Chap. I — "Work."

It seeks to tell what work is and why men cooperate.

3. Giles, *Vocational Civics*. (Macmillan.)

Chap. I — "Finding One's Place."

This chapter is an excellent discussion of the methods one may employ to find a suitable vocation.

The other chapters of the book are statements of the qualifications needed and the possibilities of success in various lines of industrial and professional work.

4. Parsons, *Choosing a Vocation*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

5. Carnegie, *The Empire of Business*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)

6. Bok, *Successward*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)

7. Marden, *Choosing a Career*. (Bobbs-Merrill Co.)

8. Marden, *Talks with Great Workers*. (Crowell.)

9. Opportunity Books. (Harper's.)

a. Lamont and Sweetser, *Opportunities in Aviation*.

b. Lee, *Opportunities in the Newspaper Business*.

c. Hendrick, *Opportunities in Chemistry*.

d. Dean, *Opportunities in Farming*.

e. Collins, *Opportunities in Merchant Ships*.

This series of books is interestingly written by specialists in the various fields.

10. Fowler, *Starting in Life*. (Little, Brown & Co.)

This book contains articles on numerous vocations along many lines.

11. Hoerle and Saltzburg, *The Girl and the Job*. (Holt.)

12. Allen, *Advertising as a Vocation*. (Macmillan.)

13. Adams, *Women Professional Workers*. (Macmillan.)

14. Filene, *Careers for Women*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

15. *The Young Man and Civil Engineering*. (Macmillan.)

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Bobbitt, *The Curriculum*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

Part II — "Training for Occupational Efficiency."

The three chapters in Part II are a most excellent presentation of the theory of vocational education.

2. Ely, *The Evolution of Industrial Society*. (Macmillan.)

THE GOOD CITIZEN

Part II, chap. I — "Competition."

Part II, chap. II — "Rivalry and Success in Economic Life."

Ely is interested in the more abstract phases of economics. These two chapters are a good general theoretic basis for the discussion of more practical phases.

3. Publications of the National Board for Vocational Education.

These materials are excellent for securing up-to-date analyses of various occupations.

4. Bloomfield, *Youth, School, and Vocation*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

Chap. I — "The Choice of a Life Work."

Chap. II — "The Wasteful Start."

Chap. III — "Educational and Vocational Guidance."

CHAPTER XV

THE COMING OF THE FACTORY

FROM the beginning to the end of our day's work and recreation we use countless factory-made articles whose number and variety make our daily routine different from that of preceding generations. In this chapter we shall see how factories came into existence and how they are now influencing community life.

Problems for you to investigate

THE RELATION OF OUR FACTORIES TO OUR COMMUNITY

- I. Make an enlargement of the manufacturing section of the map which you constructed in your investigations in Chapter XIV. On the map mark the location of each of your community's industries, and indicate the amount of space occupied by buildings, yards, etc. Devise a color scheme to indicate areas occupied by the different types of industry. (When two companies engage in the same line of manufacture, mark their sites in the same color.)
- II. Study your map, the publications which you have secured through your Chamber of Commerce, and the advertising materials published by the factories, and answer the following questions:
 1. Which industry occupies the most space?
 2. Which industry employs the most workmen?
 3. Do any of the industries have welfare departments as part of their organization? If so, you may be able to get valuable material about the human side of the industry through the welfare secretary.
- III. Study the relation of factory sites to:
 1. The railroads. Do the factories get their raw materials in your community, or are they shipped in? Is the product consumed in your community, or is it shipped elsewhere? Why have factories located in your community?

2. The residence districts. Where do most of the workmen in the factories live? Are there residence districts in your community where workmen cannot afford to have their homes? If so, where are they? Have any homes been abandoned because of their nearness to the factories?
3. The retail district. Is your town or community built around the factories or around the retail business section? Which section furnishes more employment to the members of your community? Which is more dependent upon the railroads? Upon the street cars? Why?
4. The agricultural sections. Do the factories depend upon agricultural products for their existence? If so, do the community's farms supply the demand, or are additional products shipped in?

1. The life of the community is dependent upon its industries.

In the city of Detroit, for example, thousands of workmen go to their daily employment in the shops of the automobile companies. What affects the automobile industry affects these workmen, their families, their home life, and their community activities. When the factories are running at full capacity, and little, if any want is felt among the workers, the city can raise money for civic improvements and for schools; and merchants can open new stores. Parents can afford to send their children to school properly clothed and well nourished, thus encouraging the children to make rapid progress in their studies. After school the children have the leisure to play in the open air, to read in the libraries or in their homes, and to assist their parents in making their homes more attractive abodes for their families. The temporary closing of shops means suffering for thousands of the families of workers who are thrown out of employment, and also loss of money for grocers, clothiers, physicians, bankers, and many other business and professional men. It also means that many of the older children are compelled to leave school and go to work to assist in the support of younger brothers and sisters, that churches cannot be adequately supported, and

that every form of community life is hampered. Thus we see that the educational, professional, and civic activities of the community are modified by the prosperity of the automobile industry.

1. Is your community interested in any one industry or in a variety of industries? How has your school modified its work to meet the needs of the industries in your community?
2. Do you intend to enter one of the industries in your community? If so, how is your present work fitting you to be useful and to make progress in it?
3. How do industrial conditions affect the professional man in a community?

2. The growth of factories has been due largely to mechanical inventions.

At the close of the War for Independence, most industry was connected with the home. America was chiefly a land of farmers. As each farmer in the North was also a mechanic, he made most of his own farm implements, he did his own repairing, and he cooperated with his neighbors in building houses and barns. On many farms there were large flocks of sheep which furnished abundant wool for the looms of the farmer's wife. The



EARLY DAYS IN THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY IN
NEW ENGLAND

To-day there are over three hundred thousand wage-earners in this industry in New England alone. Their annual output is valued at more than five hundred million dollars. Spinning, carding, and weaving, once household industries, are now carried on almost entirely in huge factories. (Courtesy of Old Colony Trust Company, Boston.)

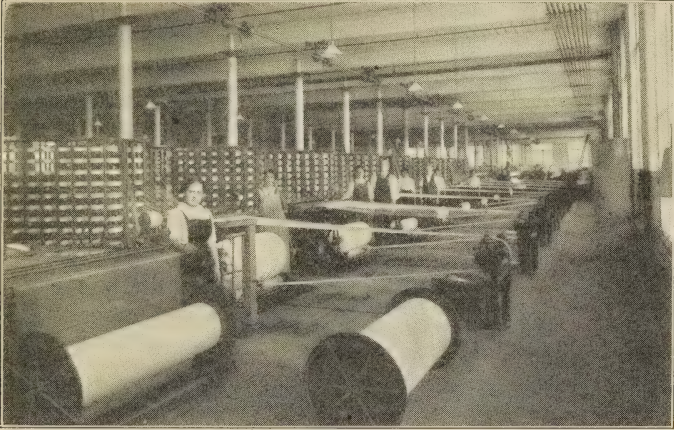
children assisted their mother in the simpler tasks of sorting, carding, and spinning. From this homespun material were made the warm clothes for the family. Cotton materials were

for the most part imported from England, and were very expensive.

Under these conditions each farmer was able to satisfy most of his wants through his own and his family's labor. Sawmills, gristmills, tanneries, salt-works, and glass-works on a small scale were established at an early date. Usually one or two men in a neighborhood devoted their time to sawing lumber or tanning hides, and took sacks of potatoes and bags of wool in payment for their work. A very large part of the time of every man, woman and child was occupied with work to provide food, clothing, and shelter for the immediate family. Only a few had leisure. Only a few, like John Adams in Boston, and George Washington in Virginia, had time to study and think about the general welfare of any large number of people.

In the years following 1771, a small group of men in England became actively interested in improving the methods of manufacturing cloth. The most famous of these men were Arkwright, Crompton, and Cartwright. They developed the earlier devices of minor inventors, and produced the machines which revolutionized the methods of manufacturing cloth. The power used for running these machines was the water power of the swift English rivers. In many places great numbers of men were thrown out of work, for one man at a power loom could do the work of twenty at hand looms. Mobs of spinners and weavers who had earned part of their living from spinning and weaving in their own homes, resenting the loss of income, burned the new machines and in some cases forced the inventors to flee for their lives. Gradually, however, people adjusted themselves to the new conditions. About 1790, after many years of experimenting by Newcomer, Watt, and Boulton, a new source of power, the steam engine, was perfected. It made possible much larger machines in larger buildings, producing greater quantities of cloth with fewer workmen. About this time Eli Whitney, an American, saw the paramount need for a mechanical device to remove the

cotton seeds from the fiber, and in 1793 he invented the cotton gin. By the teeth of a set of revolving circular saws the cotton fibers were drawn through a wire grating too fine for the seeds to pass. It was the first successful cotton gin and is the prototype of most modern gins.



THE SPINNING ROOM IN A NEW ENGLAND COTTON MILL

How great was the increase in goods manufactured with the help of the new machines may be seen from the amount of cotton which England imported. In 1770, the importation was about four million pounds. By 1792, it had increased to nearly thirty-five million pounds. After the application of steam power the great inventions of the preceding years were improved, and every advance tended to increase the importation of cotton. By 1841, England was importing nearly five hundred million pounds annually, a hundred and twenty-five times the amount she imported seventy years earlier. This great increase in English importation seems more remarkable when we remember that France and Belgium were also importing large quantities of cotton, and that New England was beginning to develop her great textile industry.

Though the manufacture of cloth was the first industry to

be affected by the new inventions, changes spread rapidly to all forms of industry. The inventive spirit appeared every-



INTERIOR OF PATENT OFFICE AT WASHINGTON, D.C.

In these cases are kept patterns of devices for which patents have been granted. (*Rau Studios.*)

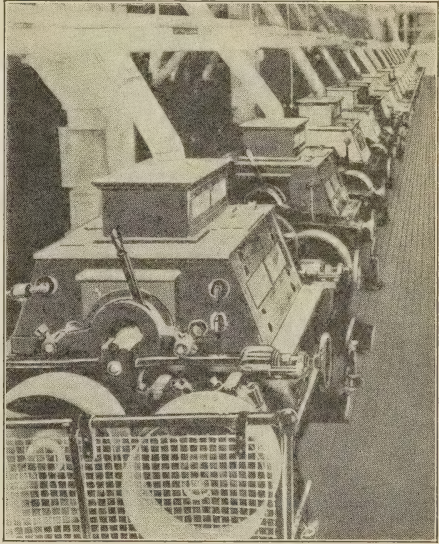
where. In the course of time steam power was applied to transportation on land and sea, and men were able to travel faster and to spread news more quickly. Coal mining methods were greatly improved. The steel industry flourished. Machines were invented for making machines. A great change took place in every phase of man's life. This change is still in progress, for every year our Patent Office at Washington issues an almost unbelievable number of patents on devices for reducing human labor.

We have become so accustomed to this continued change in methods of production and transportation that we think that nothing strange is happening.

1. What mechanical improvements have recently been introduced to make housework easier? In what ways have they changed the furnishings and arrangement of homes?
2. Why are labor-saving devices invented in large numbers during wars and immediately following wars?
3. Why are larger numbers of labor-saving machines used in America than in China?

3. The Industrial Revolution is the name applied to this series of changes in our lives.

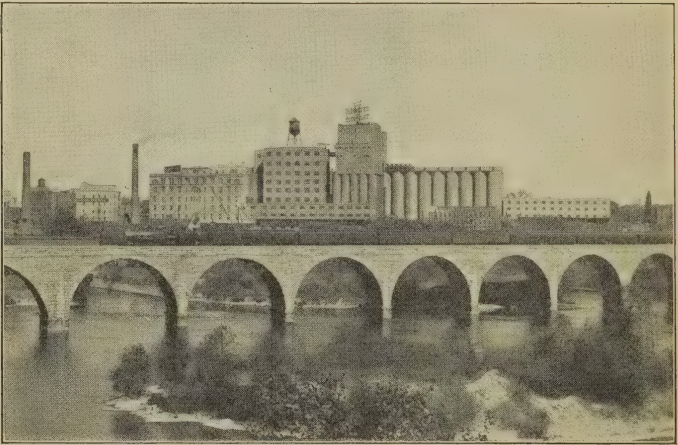
The changes were industrial in the sense that they started in industry. They were concerned with the manufacture and transportation of goods. The changes were revolutionary in that they overturned the whole system under which men lived. First of all, complicated machines took the place of the simpler tools: sewing machines gradually took the place of needles, and the complicated power loom replaced the simple hand loom of earlier days. Since these new machines were expensive, and were dependent upon more expensive steam engines for power, the ownership of the tools of industry passed out of the hands of the workmen into the hands of a new class, the capitalists. In their hands there gradually developed a new system of managing work, of marketing products, of using money and credit, and of organizing and operating great corporations. In the early years of the Industrial Revolution, the workers, unable to own the tools with which they worked, began to feel they were a distinct class with interests different from those of their employers. Here is the beginning of the problem of capital and labor.



LONGEST ROW OF GRINDING MACHINES IN ANY FLOUR MILL

A hundred years ago most of the flour used in the home was ground by hand or in small mills run by the water power of small streams and rivers. Now this labor is performed much more economically in huge factories whose power is supplied by steam engines or by electric motors. (Courtesy of Pillsbury Flour Mills.)

Another important change brought about by the new order was the change from home work to factory work. Previously, the New Englander was a farmer, incidentally a carpenter, blacksmith, weaver, and cobbler. He had thus been a Jack-of-all-trades, pursuing them all in their season on his own farm. He alone was responsible for the conditions under which he worked. But when the steam engines in the sawmills, shoe factories, and textile mills produced large supplies of lumber,



PILLSBURY MILLS AT MINNEAPOLIS

Flour ground and tested by specialized workers in these buildings reaches nearly every land where civilized people dwell. (*Courtesy of Pillsbury Flour Mills.*)

shoes, and cloth at low prices, the amount of work to be done on the farm was decreased, and many of the former farmers sought employment in the factories. The transfer of the man not needed on the farm to the factory meant the reduction of his personal freedom: his work became a routine of a rather monotonous nature; he had no control over the cleanliness of his surroundings or the purity of the air he breathed. The long hours tended to draw the workers' homes close to the factory. Here is the beginning of the factory towns with their problems of housing and sanitation.

There have also been changes in the industry of agriculture. To an ever-increasing extent the progressive farmer is using machinery to plow his fields, to plant and cultivate his crops, and to harvest them. American farm machinery is exported to nearly every part of the world. The harvester, reaper, and binder have made it possible for a relatively few men to care for thousands of acres of grain. In this way the new machines have vastly increased the farmer's yield. In proportion to the whole population, fewer men are required to produce the necessary amount of food, and more men are free to do other kinds of productive work.

1. Do you think that the government has a right to make laws about the sanitation of factories? Are there such regulations in your state? If so, why were they necessary?
2. What interest has the government in the housing of workers? Has your state or local government done anything to regulate rents? Why have such regulations been important since the World War?
3. Which life is preferable, that in the colonial family or in your family? Why?

4. The Industrial Revolution developed the progressive spirit.

Up to the last quarter of the eighteenth century changes had come about very slowly. People distrusted the new. The old ways seemed best because they were understood. Even now the burden of proof is always on the shoulders of the man with the new idea; but we do not regard an old way as sacred after a new way has been proved better. We try to keep our eyes open for better ways of doing all tasks. For example, fewer men are now required to spend their lives as keepers of lonely, isolated lighthouses. There is instead a system of automatic lights run by acetylene, gas, or electricity, and visited only for inspection or repair. The running cost is about one twentieth that of a manned light. In most large factories there are engineers whose special work it is to go about looking for ways in which mechanical details can be

improved. They are finding that accidents which injure workmen and cost the company large sums of money are often signs of inefficiency. They are improving their machines and



CHelsea TELEPHONE EXCHANGE

In 1875 the telephone was considered an impracticable toy. In 1900 it was the luxury of the rich. In 1920 it had become a necessity in business, the professions, and the home. Girls in exchanges like this in all parts of the United States handle about thirty-five million calls a day. (Courtesy of American Telephone and Telegraph Company.)

methods. Because of the high price of labor many firms have found it economical to overhaul and redesign all their equipment. Year after year great improvements are being made in airships. Even our Post-Office Department has found it profitable to employ this new method of transportation for carrying certain kinds of mail. Last year's automobile becomes a back number, and next year's model is eagerly sought. In feverish haste we look for more and greater improvements to satisfy our increasing desires and needs. In our ever-changing world the

customary has lost its former value, and has been replaced by the belief of man in his ability to conquer the universe.

1. What attitude do the people in your community take toward changes in industry? In government? In home life?
2. Are any great changes now taking place in your community? If so, show how they will affect you.
3. Why is it usually easier to bring about changes in industry than in government?

5. **Machine industry has helped to make us more dependent upon one another.**

On page 26 of his book, *The Worker and the State*, Dean brings out this point very well. He says:

In New York one can rise in the morning in a house made from machine-pressed concrete blocks, take a bath from a system of water-works which is a marvel of engineering, upon which a horde of immigrants was engaged; dress himself in a suit the coat of which alone had thirty-nine operations in its making; wear a pair of shoes which involves over one hundred distinct manual operations and requires the use of forty-five different machines in its making; eat a breakfast of beefsteak and thus closely touch an industry where division of labor has been ingeniously worked out in thirty odd operations of killing and dressing a bullock; ride down to business on a subway train whose method of operation depends upon automatic switches, signals, and speed control; read a paper with the world news as given by telephone, wireless telegraph, messenger boys, printers, and type-setters, an industry reaching from the logging camps of Maine and the preparation of the wood pulp to the almost human action of the Howe press; ride in an express elevator to the thirty-fifth floor of his office building to dictate into a phonograph his orders of the day, that he may carry on the business of directing the human efforts of twenty-five thousand men and women who are working in a distant city on a manufactured product.

1. Why is it important for you to know about the conditions under which many kinds of laborers work? If you lived under a despotic government, would this knowledge be more or less important? Why?
2. If our national government passed a law prohibiting states from trading with one another, how would your life be affected? Make a list of ordinary things which your state is not able to produce economically.

¹ This extract is reproduced from *The Worker and the State*, by Arthur Davis Dean, through the courtesy of the Century Company.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
 Lesson A-8 — "The Rise of Machine Industry."
 Lesson B-3 — "A Cotton Factory and the Workers."
 Lesson B-9 — "How Men Made Heat to Work."
 Lesson C-9 — "Inventions."
 Lesson C-10 — "Iron and Steel."
2. Beard, *American Citizenship*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. II — "Food, Clothing, and Shelter."
3. Robinson, *Early Factory Labor in New England*. (Massachusetts Public Document 1882, vol. 3, no. 15.)
4. Robinson, *Loom and Spindle*. (Crowell.)
 This little book is a fine description of the life of the early mill girls in Massachusetts. The district described is around Lowell.
5. Tufts, *The Real Business of Living*. (Holt.)
 Chap. xv — "The Industrial Revolution."
 This chapter gives an excellent statement of the changes brought about by the industrial revolution.
6. Lincoln, *The Factory*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 Chap. II — "Sir Richard Arkwright."
 Chap. III — "Mechanical Inventions."
 Chap. IV — "The Factory System."
 Chap. V — "The Factory Towns."
 This series of essays traces in an interesting way some of the effects of mechanical invention upon the lives of laborers.
7. Hubbard, *The Story of the Pullman Car*. (McClurg.)
 Chap. V — "The Survival of the Fittest."
 Chap. VII — "Inventions and Improvements."
8. Hubbard, *Little Journeys to the Homes of Great Business Men*. (The Roycrofters.)
 Vol. I, pp. 1-35 — "Robert Owen."
 This selection contains a wonderful story of conditions in England during the era of textile inventions.
9. Thompson, *The Age of Invention*. (Yale University Press.)
 Chap. II — "Eli Whitney and the Cotton Gin."
 Chap. V — "The Agricultural Revolution."
10. Mason, *The Origins of Invention*. (Scribner's.)
 Chap. VII — "The Textile Industry."
 It is a study of this industry as developed among primitive peoples.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Carlton, *The Industrial Situation*. (Revell.)
 Chap. III — "Effect of the Industrial Revolution upon the Home and Home Life."
2. Marshall, *Readings in Industrial Society*. (University of Chicago Press.)
 Chap. III — "The Coming in of Capitalism."

This chapter traces the rise of the capitalistic spirit, the coming of the middleman, and the significance of the industrial revolution. Since the material is drawn from many sources, it gives the reader breadth of view not obtainable by reading any one author.

3. Hazen, *Europe Since 1815*. (Holt.)

Chap. XXXII — "Certain Features of Modern Progress."

The first half of this chapter gives a concise statement of progress along industrial and mechanical lines during the nineteenth century.

4. Wells, *The Outline of History*. (Macmillan.)

Vol. II, chap. XXXIX — §I — "The Mechanical Revolution." §2 —

"The Relation of the Mechanical to the Industrial Revolution." §3 —

"The Fermentation of Ideas."

CHAPTER XVI

THE CORPORATION IN INDUSTRY

AT the foundation of all our industrial, agricultural, commercial, and other productive employments are three necessary elements: capital, land, and labor. We shall study the corporation as a representative of capital in order that we may see what capital is, why it is a necessary element in producing the things we use, how it is collected, and how our community controls its use.

Problems for you to investigate

THE RELATION OF OUR STATE GOVERNMENT TO OUR INDUSTRIES

- I. Get a copy of the constitution of your state. Read those sections which deal with various kinds of corporations with a view to discovering:
 1. The conditions under which charters are given to corporations.
 2. The special provisions made for railroads, banks, insurance companies, etc., and the reasons for treating these corporations in a special way.
 3. The Board or Commissions created for the control of rates of gas companies, railroads, etc., in some states called the Railroad Commission, in others, the Public Utilities Commission, etc. You can probably get reports through your librarian.
- II. The government of the state encourages certain kinds of private enterprise:
 1. Agriculture. Appoint a committee to secure reports of your State Department of Agriculture and to find out the special work now being done.
 2. Mining. All states with mineral deposits have a State Bureau of Mines. Appoint a committee of your class to investigate.

3. Retail stores. For the purpose of avoiding disputes in buying and selling goods, most states have a Bureau of Weights and Measures. Have a committee of your class get reports of this bureau and find out:
 - a. Examples of its work in special industries.
 - b. The means by which it coöperates with counties and cities.
4. Drainage and irrigation. If your state has special problems in this field, it probably has a department of the state government devoted to encouraging these lines of work. If so, have your class committee make a report.
5. Forestry. Unless your state has extensive timber lands, forestry is part of the work of the Department of Agriculture. From your roster of city, county, and state officials find out if your state has a forestry department, and if so, appoint a committee to study its work and to report to the class.

III. What relation is there between the following activities:

1. Industrial progress and the building of roads, canals, etc.?
2. Industrial progress and the encouragement of education?
3. Industrial progress and health work?

1. Capital is accumulated surplus earnings.

We shall understand the meaning of capital best if we assume very primitive conditions and surroundings. Let us consider a man lost on the desert, but fortunate enough to find a pleasant oasis. This discovery gives him productive land, an opportunity to work. By the application of his labor to nature's gifts he may be able to construct a hut, to make tools, to weave the grasses into cloth, and finally to store away some of the products he does not need. Presently his life becomes less irksome for he is not compelled to work every day to satisfy his immediate needs, and the tools he has constructed help him to economize time. In other words, he is getting returns from the capital he has accumulated.

Thus we see that capital may be in any form: it may be a surplus of crops, or of herds, or of tools, or manufactures, or money, or buildings, or any other product. It is accumulated

first by the sort of activity which we saw taking place on the desert oasis, then by using the savings in the form of tools and conveniences to produce a larger surplus of products. Through



SHEEP IN THE SAN JOAQUIN VALLEY

For long ages all riches possessed by men was in portable form, frequently in flocks of sheep and herds of cattle. Men like the shepherd in this picture have roamed over the valleys and hills from the dawn of civilization. (*Courtesy of Fresno County Chamber of Commerce.*)

such re-investment of surplus earnings year by year we have built up our store of wealth, thereby laying the foundation for our civilization.

1. Why is the capital of a business enterprise usually stated in dollars?
 2. If you have a hundred silver dollars stored in a secret hiding-place, is it capital? In what ways is it different from a hundred dollars invested in a business enterprise?
- 2. Modern industry requires abundant capital.**

In our study of the Industrial Revolution we saw that one of the most evident changes was the development of the factory system. From the dawn of civilization manufactured articles had been made by craftsmen in their own homes. There were a few capitalists who let out looms, furnished raw materials, and marketed the finished product; but they did

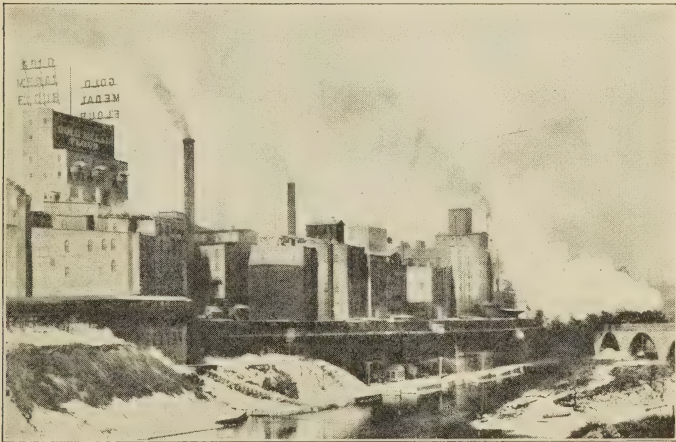
not play nearly so important a part as the proprietors of factories at the present day. Only as the invention of complicated machinery made it profitable for a man to bring together craftsmen and machines under one roof did large amounts of capital in the hands of a few men become necessary.

In the United States, large factories were slower in developing than they were in England. This was because the large areas of free land in the western part of our country kept drawing people away from the East, thus reducing both



Courtesy of Washburn-Crosby Company

WASHBURN-CROSBY MILLING PLANT IN 1866

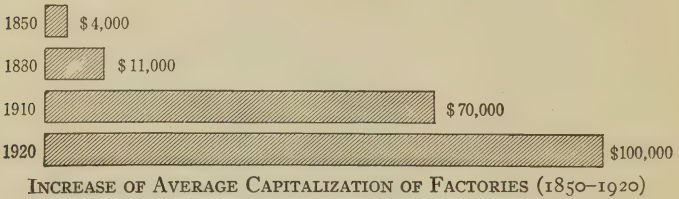


Courtesy of Washburn-Crosby Company

WASHBURN-CROSBY MILLING PLANT AND ADJOINING DISTRICT IN 1921

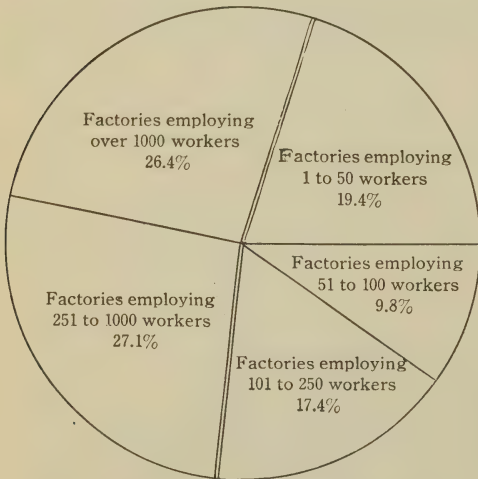
the supply of labor available for use in factories and the supply of money necessary for factory construction. Instead of using

their money for industrial development of the settled areas, many of our people preferred to use it for conquering the wilderness beyond the Mississippi.



In 1850 began the rapid growth of our manufacturing industries. Then the average capital of each factory in the United States was a little over four thousand dollars. Thirty

years later the average capital was nearly eleven thousand dollars, and in 1910 it was nearly seventy thousand dollars. Returns from the 1920 census show that the demand for capital is still increasing, for the average capitalization of factories was in the neighborhood of one hundred thousand dollars. This great increase in the average size of our



DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS IN FACTORIES OF DIFFERENT SIZES

factories is due to the economies of large-scale production which we shall study next.

- i. What factories are there in your neighborhood? In your town? When were they built? Do they employ more or

fewer men than they did ten years ago? Have they increased their capital? The Chamber of Commerce in your town has facts about the industries of your community. The Secretary will no doubt be glad to talk to you and to give you a great deal of information if you tell him what you would like to know.

2. Ask your librarian for the volume of the 1920 census which tells about our industrial development. Are the listed industries carried on by large companies or by individuals?
3. Make a list of your state's chief sources of wealth and give their localities.

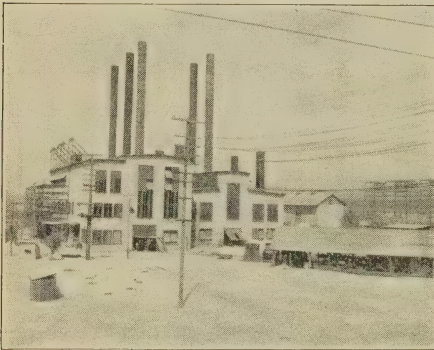
3. Large-scale industry is more economical than small-scale production.

When a factory is large, its owners can afford to purchase expensive and complicated machinery, for they are reasonably sure of its continuous use. The work is divided according to its difficulty among a great number of workers, over whom are placed foremen and superintendents who watch the progress of the work very carefully. Scientists are employed to study the needs of the factory and to invent new processes which become the property of the large concern. But since new methods are closely protected by patents, often it is not until years later that the smaller factories can use them. Meanwhile, all the advantages of cheaper production have been adding to the profits of the big concern.

In another field the big business concern has a decided advantage: it can utilize its waste products. Such industries as meat-packing produce hundreds of by-products. To a smaller degree, the iron, lumber, paper, cotton, leather, and textile industries put by-products on the market. In large meat-packing concerns, like Swift's or Armour's, hoofs, horns, bones, bristles, and fat are made into soap, glue, fertilizers, combs, buttons, oils, glycerine, and many other useful products. No small company has enough of any one kind of waste to make it profitable to set up factories for its conversion into things that will sell. Probably the greatest economy

within the plant of a big concern is this use of its waste. When this power to utilize waste is added to the power to buy the newest kinds of machinery and to hire skilled superintendents, as well as to employ trained scientists, the big business gains great advantages over the smaller establishments.

In buying its raw materials and in marketing its goods, the large firm also has the advantage. A large firm can afford to hire expert buyers who travel the length and breadth of the



BAKERSFIELD STEAM PLANT OF THE SAN JOAQUIN LIGHT AND POWER COMPANY

The fuel for this steam plant is natural gas carried thirty miles from the Midway Oil Fields of California. The plant supplies electrical power for running pumps used to irrigate many acres of land which would otherwise be arid desert. The plant cost \$2,500,000. Only a large corporation could afford this huge expenditure to utilize the natural gas from its oil wells.

the ore to Gary and South Chicago, coal mines in Illinois, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia, with railroads to carry the coal to its great mills in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and ocean liners which carry its steel to foreign markets. No small company can possibly compete with this kind of organization. The United States Steel Corporation is not paying profits to other companies of mine-owners, railroad and steamship lines, because it has all these profits for itself, and it can therefore produce and market its output cheaper than any independent company could.

country and even into foreign lands looking for opportunities to buy large quantities of raw materials. Some types of large firms find it profitable to make contracts with farmers extending over many years, or to buy land and raise their own produce. The United States Steel Corporation is a good example of another type. It owns iron mines in the Lake Superior region, great barges for carrying

1. If you were a cotton grower in Louisiana, would you want to make a contract with the Goodrich Tire Company to sell it all your cotton? Why, or why not? Why do you think the Company has purchased large tracts of land in Arizona for the special purpose of raising its own cotton?
2. Why has the great meat-packing corporation, Wilson and Company, opened sporting goods stores in many places? Are their prices lower than in other sporting goods stores? How do you account for this?



SMALL-SCALE WAY OF PROVIDING THE FAMILY WITH MEAT

4. Large-scale methods benefit the public.

There is little variety for the family and endless work for the housekeeper. (*Courtesy of Swift & Company.*)

We may well ask what the public gains from large-scale production. First of all, brands and trade-marks become important. For example, American Family Soap is more than just soap. Because of the experiments conducted in its great laboratories, the company has been able to put on the market a very fine product of such uniform quality that one bar is as like another as the drops of water in a bucket. Spalding tennis balls, Goodyear tires, Del Monte preserves,



Courtesy of Swift & Company

LARGE-SCALE WAY OF PROVIDING THE FAMILY WITH MEAT

Swift hams and bacon, Heinz pickles, all convey to the public very definite ideas because their manufacturers are able to carry on extensive advertising campaigns which not only make their brands known but educate the buyer. Therefore, the use of a certain trade-mark is safeguarded by the laws of the states and of the nation. Then, the utilization of waste products makes possible a variety of goods such as mankind has never known before. Every year brings forth some new device more serviceable than any on the market. For example, think of the improvements in safety razors, pencils, fountain pens, soaps, sporting goods, and automobiles. As scientists bring their knowledge to bear on industry to an ever-increasing extent, we may expect greater and more significant improvements in the things which we use daily. Year after year the standard of living improves. Our houses are more convenient and more sanitary. Our food is more varied and is supplied more regularly. All our needs can be satisfied more readily. For most of these advances we have to thank the industrial system with its large-scale methods.

1. Why are trade-marks valuable? Why has Congress passed laws to prevent one firm from using the trade-mark of another? Clip as many trade-marks as you can find in the magazines available for this purpose. If you were going to manufacture some article or grow some kind of fruit, would you want a trade-mark for it? Why?

5. Most large business houses are organized as corporations.

Before 1850, when the average capital used in the nation's industries was about four thousand dollars, one man could own a factory, or two or more men could enter into a partnership. The owners were responsible for all the debts incurred in running their establishment. If the business failed, their creditors could lay claim not only to the money invested in the factory, but also to the other assets of the owners, their homes, real estate, farms, and cash. When one of the owners died, or wanted to withdraw, a complete reorganization was

necessary. This simpler type of business organization is present to a very large extent now, but for manufacturing on a large scale, a new form of organization has become necessary.

For centuries the people in cities have been combining for protection against fire, disease, and crime, for maintaining streets, and for running schools. Charters of American cities are granted by our state legislatures and give the people legal



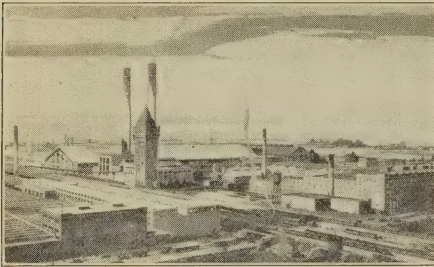
THE OWNERS OF A GREAT CORPORATION

There is one Bell Telephone stockholder for every thirty-four subscribers. No other great industry has so democratic a distribution of its stocks; no other industry is so completely owned by the people it serves. (*Courtesy of American Telephone and Telegraph Company.*)

permission to carry on the business affairs of their city as an organized body of citizens. Cities, churches, universities, and similar institutions are public corporations, that is, they are bodies of citizens doing public work for the public good.

As the need for larger funds to carry on industry grew, men turned to the corporation to handle their problem. They organized factories, banks, mining companies, and construction companies as corporations for profit. There are several advantages gained by this method of organization. A

thousand men, each willing to invest a thousand dollars, can form a million-dollar corporation. Each man buys an interest in the business which is represented by shares of stock. In this way comparatively small sums of money can be profitably invested. The stockholders do not need to know one another, or to live in the same locality, or even to speak the same language. Before the World War, for example, the French



THE WESTERN ELECTRIC COMPANY

This factory is controlled by stock ownership by the American Telephone and Telegraph Company. It manufactures all the electrical equipment used by this company and its associates. (Courtesy of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company.)

people held a very large part of the stock in the corporations that were building the Russian railroads. In Norway large numbers of people invest their small savings in the stock of shipbuilding companies. Another good illustration is the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, commonly known as the "Bell System." According to the company's figures in January, 1923, it has nearly a billion and three quarters dollars invested in physical property. Its stockholders number approximately two hundred and fifty thousand people. The coöperation of all these thousands is making possible our nation-wide telephone and telegraph service.

In a corporation the business is run by a board of directors elected by the stockholders. Each share of stock usually carries with it one vote. If a small group of men own more than fifty per cent of the stock, they can manage the business to suit themselves. The small stockholder has the privilege of selling his stock if he so desires. One advantage of the corporation as we have seen, is that it may combine many small sums of money into a great working whole. Another advantage is that the investor risks only what he pays for his

stock. If the business fails, no stockholder is responsible for more than the value of his stock. The one exception to this rule is the case of national banks where a man is responsible for twice the value of his stock. A man's personal property, real estate, or other assets cannot be claimed by the creditors in payment of the debts of the corporation. This arrangement is called limited liability.

The third great advantage of a corporation comes from its permanence. When a stockholder dies, his shares are turned over to his beneficiaries. His death makes no difference to the corporation as a whole. This permanence greatly increases the firm's ability to borrow money in the form of bond issues. Bonds are statements of indebtedness payable in full at a stated time. Attached to them are coupons good for interest payable, when due, by the bank that handles the corporation's business. As an investment, there is less risk in bonds than there is in stock, because the bonds and their interest are paid first out of the profits of the business. Then the stockholders are paid. If the corporation fails, the bondholders are paid in proportion to their holdings before any money is paid to stockholders. On the other hand, the interest payable to bondholders is fixed by contract, whereas, the interest, or dividends, upon stocks may be increased in times of good business by extra dividends.

These advantages of the corporation over the partnership form of doing business have induced nearly all the larger growing concerns to organize as corporations. In 1920, about eighty-five per cent of all the capital of the United States was in the hands of corporations, and eighty-six per cent of all the wage-earners were employed by corporations.

1. Does your father work for a corporation? For a partnership, or for an individual employer? In which form of management is a man likely to be employed most regularly? Why?
2. Does your father own stock in any corporation? Ask him if it is more or less valuable than when he bought it. What do people mean when they say stock is selling above par? What is preferred stock?

3. Who owns the gas company in your town or city? When rates are raised who is the loser? The gainer? Could the same man be loser and gainer? Would he be in favor of higher or lower rates? Why?
 4. If you had the proceeds of a \$5000 life insurance policy to invest, would you buy stocks or bonds? Or would you put your money in the savings bank? Why?
- 6. Large-scale industry demands organizers with energy, ambition, and insight.**

The materials thus far presented in this chapter may possibly have given you the impression that large enterprises have become large and can continue to become larger, without hindrance from any source. However, industry requires leadership of superlative quality. Rare individuals, like Andrew Carnegie, or James J. Hill, have the daring to try out a new form of organization, to assume the risks involved in changes to new machinery, and to plan improvements on a larger scale than any one has ever planned before. In an industry where a leader of this type appears great changes usually take place rapidly. If large numbers of people were capable of undergoing the physical and mental strain involved in industrial leadership, there would be fewer business failures, and more rapid progress. As it is, we must wait for the few gifted, courageous individuals to organize our complicated industries along lines of greatest benefit to their stockholders, bondholders, and the general public.

1. In what ways is an industrial leader like an inventor?
2. Who was Andrew Carnegie? Appoint a member of your class to report on his work in the steel industry.
3. Who was James J. Hill? Appoint a member of your class to report on his work in railroading.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Tufts, *The Real Business of Living*. (Holt.)
 Chap. xvi — "The Corporation as a Mode of Coöperation."
 Chap. xvii — "The Tendency Toward Great Industries and Trusts."
 Chap. xxii — "Business and Industry as Public Service."

2. *The Independent.*

- a. February 21, 1920, "Master Workshops of America — Sears, Roebuck, and Company."

This article tells the story of the way in which this company has built up the largest mail order business in the world.

- b. March 20, 1920, "Master Workshops of America — The Peabody Coal Company."

This article tells how the company has grown in thirty-six years from a small concern to the largest coal company in America.

3. Marshall and Judd, *Studies in Community and National Life.*

Lesson B-12 — "Impersonality of Modern Life." It shows the result of large-scale production as reflected in the habits and life of the people.

Lesson A-20 — "Private Control of Industry." It shows how and why businesses tend to become large and to form corporations.

Lesson A-25 — "The Integration of the Greatest Manufacturing Concern in the United States." It presents in a limited way the history of the United States Steel Corporation. Every pupil should read it as a definite example of the way in which big business becomes big.

Lesson A-26 — "Concentration of Control in the Railway Industry." It shows how great businesses with thousands of stockholders can be controlled by a few individuals.

Lesson B-25 — "Concentration of Production in the Meat-packing Industry." It shows how a large industry is able to utilize by-products.

4. Cotter, *United States Steel.* (Doubleday, Page & Co.)

Chap. I — "The Why and How of the Big Company."

Chap. II — "The Birth of the Big Company."

Chap. V — "Men Who Made United States Steel."

The book is planned as an honest presentation of the growth and development of our largest corporation. Of special interest are the three chapters listed above.

5. Casson, *The History of the Telephone.* (McClurg.)

Chap. II — "The Building of the Business."

Chap. III — "The Holding of the Business."

6. Hubbard, *Little Journeys to the Homes of Great Business Men.* (The Roycrofters.)

Vol. I, pp. 141-184 — "Philip D. Armour."

It is a most interesting biography of the founder of the packing-house industry.

Vol. II, pp. 29-76 — "Andrew Carnegie."

pp. 177-221 — "James J. Hill." It is the biography of one of America's greatest railroad builders.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Bogart, *Economic History of the United States.* (Longmans, Green & Co.)

Chap. XXVIII — "Manufacturing on a Large Scale."

Chap. XXIX — "Industrial Combinations"

2. Marshall, *Readings in Industrial Society*. (University of Chicago Press.)
Chap. x — "Concentration."
The readings cover large-scale production, concentration of wealth and income, private control of industry, and forms of combination.
3. Ely, *Evolution of Industrial Society*. (Macmillan.)
Part II, chap. IV — "Monopolies and Trusts."

CHAPTER XVII

THE MODERN WORKMAN

WE have seen that capital is one of the three essential elements in producing our daily necessities, that it is a surplus of things produced in excess of things used, and that it may be in the form of buildings, machinery, manufactured goods, farm products, and so forth. But, if we did not work, we would speedily consume all our surplus supplies. By labor we are enabled not only to secure our livelihoods and conserve our supply of capital, but also to increase it. Labor, then, is another of the three elements in production.

Problems for you to investigate

OUR STATE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

Because our industrial system has become so complex that the individual workman frequently needs assistance in securing employment, in obtaining sanitary surroundings during his working hours, and in collecting compensation for accidental injuries while at work, most of our states have organized departments of labor.

- I. Appoint a committee to get reports of this department either through your librarian or from the office at the capital of your state. Find out:
 1. Why the department was organized.
 2. Who its directors are and how they obtain their positions.
- II. If you live in an industrial community there is probably a branch which conducts the local work of the state department. Such work usually consists of:
 1. Conducting a public employment agency. Through a committee find out:
 - a. What kind of workers are in demand? Why?
 - b. How many positions does the agency fill in a year?
 - c. What is the effect upon private employment agencies?

THE GOOD CITIZEN

2. Enforcing laws affecting women and children in industry.
 - a. Is there an eight-hour law and a minimum age law for women in your state?
 - b. How does your department of labor coöperate with your department of education for the prevention of child labor? For the protection of children lawfully employed?
3. Inspecting sanitation in factories, shops, etc.
If possible, find out what laws are on your statute books in regard to heating, lighting, sanitation.
4. Prosecuting violators of the state factory laws.
Watch your local papers for cases in your local community.

III. In a state department of labor there are usually several boards, most important of which are:

1. The Industrial Accident Board.
 - a. What is an industrial accident? What is the law in your state regarding such accidents? (The first report of the board is probably detailed and interesting, and gives a report on conditions which led to the formation of the board and the passing of the laws governing accidents in industry.)
 - b. From reports find out how many accidents occur and in what industries. What usually causes these accidents? How do workers get compensation?
 - c. Some boards publish monthly pamphlets containing news of safety devices, precautions, etc. If your state issues such publications, obtain them through your librarian.
2. Industrial Conciliation Board.
 - a. From reports find out why this board was established and who is eligible to serve on it.
 - b. Most conciliation boards keep themselves in readiness for the settlement of wage disputes by:
 - (1) Collecting data of wages from labor organizations and from employers.
 - (2) Studying cost of living in various parts of the state.
 - (3) Collecting data on factories, mines, etc., as regards value of output, profits, etc.

Is your state doing work of this kind? If not, do you see any reasons why not? If so, what branches of industry receive greatest attention? Why?

- c. Watch carefully the issues of the daily newspapers for mention of the board's work. Do you consider work of this kind worth while? Why?
3. Immigration and Housing Commission.
 - a. In your study of the dwellings of your neighborhood you probably used reports of this commission. Review its work briefly.
 - b. What is the relationship between proper housing and an American standard of living? Illustrate.

1. Many workmen are organized into unions.

In our study of the corporation we saw that the capital belonging to a large number of people is massed together. Under the direction of skillful industrial leaders this capital is then set to work with great numbers of laborers who have no direct dealings with the makers of their tools or the purchasers of their products. The great corporation affords fewer opportunities for intimate human contacts than the small workshop of the days preceding the Industrial Revolution, when the workman owned his own tools and sold his products to his neighbors.

At the present time the individual workman's dealings with his employers are usually carried on through the foreman. The foreman's task is to get the best possible labor at the lowest possible wage. He tends to look upon labor as a commodity, just as the buyer of iron and lumber considers these things commodities. But labor is vastly different from iron and lumber. If prices are low, the lumberman can pile up his logs and wait for a rise in price. The logs will be just as good six months hence as they are now. On the other hand, the laborer cannot wait. He must sell his labor at once. He must get money for food, clothing, and shelter for himself and for those dependent upon him. Because his needs are urgent

the worker must take what he can get. He has discovered that he can get more by coöperation with his fellow workmen than he can get alone. As a result, workmen have organized themselves into unions.

The trade union does not owe its origin to the employer who is considerate of the men in his shop. The real cause of the trade union is the grasping, tyrannical, and indifferent employer. Were it not for his selfish search for profits at the



WORKMEN LEAVING THE PLANT OF THE INTERNATIONAL HARVESTER COMPANY, CHICAGO

Many of these men are Polish and Bohemian immigrants who have great difficulty in adjusting themselves to the routine, noise, and size of our large industrial establishments. (*Courtesy of the International Harvester Company.*)

expense of his workmen, unionism would not be in its place of power to-day. For example, take the clothing industry. The workers, mostly foreign-born, were underpaid and overworked for many years. Because their low wages forced them to live in overcrowded tenements, and to eat the cheapest kinds of food, they suffered from accidents during the day's work, and they easily became victims of tuberculosis and similar diseases. There were many unorganized movements against particular abuses and particular places. By degrees a feeling of comradeship grew up among workers in the various

clothing centers of America. The formation of a national union in 1911, known as the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, marks the beginning of better working conditions in the clothing industry. The underlying feeling of the organization is unity. It is in existence for the protection of all the workers



SCENE IN THE LUMBER REGION OF THE NORTHWEST

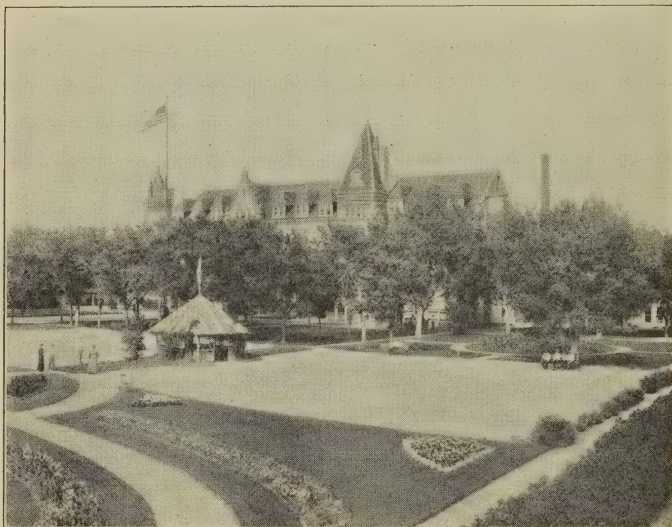
Tributary to Seattle are three hundred logging camps and mills, nearly all under the control of distant corporations. (*Courtesy of Seattle Chamber of Commerce.*)

in the industry. It tries to deal in a practical manner with the new problems that arise. Therefore a clothing worker in any shop is likely to be less interested in the prosperity of that shop than he is in the strength of his union. This feeling is natural, for the shops have not seemed to care very much for the worker's comfort and happiness, while the union has held these things most important.

1. Do any of your friends or relatives work in an industry where there is a union? Do they belong? Try to find out reasons.
2. Make or get a list of all the unions in your community. How many different kinds of work are represented?

2. What is a union and what are its purposes?

The particular form a union takes depends upon the conditions under which it comes into existence. In general, a labor organization is a "continuous association of wage earners for the purpose of maintaining or improving the conditions of their employment." The earliest successful unions were composed of highly skilled workmen. For example, the



PRINTERS' HOME AT COLORADO SPRINGS

This home was established to care for those printers and proof-readers who become tubercular. Tuberculosis is very common among men in this work. The union met the need of its members by constructing this home, thus performing one of the finest pieces of work ever accomplished by a trade union. (*Courtesy of the International Typographical Union.*)

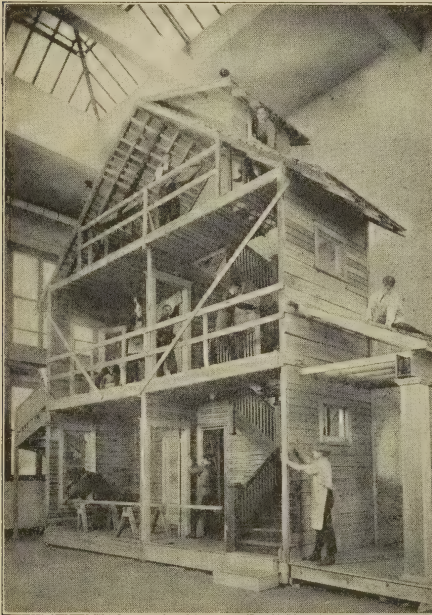
International Typographical Union contains only highly skilled printers, men who read proof, who set type by hand, and who run the Linotype machine. The binders, stereotypers, lithographers, and other men employed by printing establishments have separate unions. In recent years a new type of organization has developed. It is one big union which includes all the workers from the very highly skilled men

right down to the unskilled laborers. A good example of this new type is the miners' union known as the United Mine Workers. The advantage of this type of organization is very evident: all the men in a union mine are tied together by their common interest in their organization. Injury to one means that injury is felt by all. The present tendency in labor organizations seems to be to include all the workers in a given industry in one union. The older form, like the Typographical Union, remains only among the very highly skilled workmen who do not feel that the gains they have made will be threatened. The feeling of safety and confidence keeps them from uniting with the other less skilled workers in the establishment. No matter what form a union takes, its underlying purposes are much the same: to maintain or to improve conditions of employment.

Many and varied are the means used to accomplish these purposes. First of all, a union can speak with authority to employers in behalf of the workers. It has the power to bargain for all, to get the employer to agree to a certain definite wage to be paid for a certain definite variety of work done under certain definite conditions. As a result of this collective bargaining the union worker does not have to talk about pay when he applies for a job in a union shop. He knows what wage all union workers are receiving, and expects the same for himself. Organized capital in the form of corporations is dealing with organized labor in the form of unions. When both sides are organized, both are prepared to stand for their rights. The individual worker makes a great gain, for he is no longer at the mercy of an unscrupulous foreman. Through his organization he has gained advantages for which he could never hope if he sought them as an individual. When organized capital is not willing to grant the requests of organized labor, serious consequences frequently follow in the form of strikes, boycotts, walk-outs, or lock-outs. Union labor has fought for its present power in long, tiresome, and hungry strikes. Its ability to endure hardships may be considered as one evidence of the bad working conditions it seeks to improve.

1. Do workers belonging to a union compete with one another? If so, in what ways? If not, why not?
2. What is a boycott? A walk-out? A lock-out? A strike? Arbitration? What advantages and disadvantages does each have from the standpoint of the union and the employer?
3. **Labor unions are affiliated with city, state, and national organizations.**

When a union man talks about his local, he means the labor organization in his community whose meetings he and his



CARPENTER APPRENTICES

These classes are a fine example of coöperation between the unions composing the Chicago Building Trades Council and the public schools. (Courtesy of F. L. Morse.)

fellow-workmen in the same line of work have a right to attend regularly. This local is usually a branch of a national or international union which has other branches in many places. National unions are composed of locals in the United States. International unions include Canada. The local gives the union workman a chance to keep in touch with union affairs and to express his own ideas. Every local has a charter from the national or international union which defines its rights and duties. The dues paid regularly into the treasury of the local are partly for its support and partly for the support of the national or international union. From each local in a city is elected a delegate to represent his union at a council of all the local unions in all

fellow-workmen in the same line of work have a right to attend regularly. This local is usually a branch of a national or international union which has other branches in many places. National unions are composed of locals in the United States. International unions include Canada. The local gives the union workman a chance to keep in touch with union affairs and to express his own ideas. Every local has a charter from the national or international union which defines its rights and duties. The dues paid

the trades in the city. This council is usually called the Central Labor Council. It is the means of exchanging ideas and impressions on topics related to the interests of workingmen in all industries. It usually publishes a weekly paper which it sends to all union men affiliated with the council. In this way public opinion can be developed among the union members of any community strong enough to overcome many obstacles. As a rule, delegates from these councils and from the locals are sent to a state meeting of a body called the State Federation of Labor. The reports brought back by each delegate serve to stimulate his council and his local union to greater efforts.

Among all the organizations to which a union may send a delegate, none is more important than the American Federation of Labor. The Federation was founded in 1861 with a membership of fifty thousand union men all belonging to locals. By 1904, the membership of local unions in the Federation was about one million seven hundred thousand. In 1914, the membership passed the two million mark. At its convention in Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1922, there were 458 delegates present. Of this number 287 were sent by 95 national and international unions, 30 by state federations, 91 by city labor councils, 39 by trade and federal unions, and 6 by fraternal organizations. Two of the most important of these organizations were the National Women's Trade Union League and the British Trade and Labor Congress. In the important matter of voting the 287 delegates from the 95 national and international unions had 31,283 votes, proportioned according to the membership of their respective groups. All the others had only 182 votes, that is, three-fifths of one per cent of the total voting power. The reason for this great difference in voting power is easy to see, for, after all, these 287 delegates were the direct representatives of the locals. Delegates from the state federations, etc., were representing the same locals as the 287 delegates. They were asked to the convention to contribute ideas from their geographic districts. Thus real powers of deciding questions and of putting new ideas into

practice are always in the hands of the representatives of the occupational groups, not of the geographic areas. This point is important, as we shall see later on when we study the methods by which our state and national governments operate. In them the whole emphasis is on geographic areas, while the power in the American Federation of Labor is in the hands of the occupational groups.

1. Is there a Central Labor Council or a Federation of Labor in your city? Where does it meet? What does it discuss at its meetings? Is the public admitted? Most groups of this kind welcome visitors. Appoint a committee of your class to arrange an excursion. Use part of your next recitation period for a discussion of the things you saw.
2. Are skilled workers easier or harder to organize than unskilled workers? Why?

4. The principles for which the American Federation of Labor stands are expressed in its conventions.

At a recent convention the American Federation of Labor declared for the following principles, and for others of more temporary significance:

1. Government ownership with democratic operation of railroads.
2. Curb on profiteering and the high cost of living.
3. Punishment of food and clothing profiteers.
4. Right to strike and abolition of compulsory arbitration and anti-strike legislation in force in various places.
5. Right of collective bargaining.
6. Advances in wages wherever necessary to maintain the American standard of living.
7. Shorter work day, if necessary, to prevent unemployment.
8. Disapproval of a Labor Party.

These principles are at the root of union labor. Notice that there is no approval of the revolutionary methods in Russia. Union labor, as organized in the American Federation, stands for democratic government, not for bolshevism. It disapproves of a special labor party, and depends upon the Repub-

licans and the Democrats to give labor its just rights under the law. It looks to the improvement of living conditions through legal means, as is shown by its declaration in favor of punishing food and clothing profiteers. It insists on the rights to strike, to make collective bargains, and to prevent unemployment because these are believed to be the inalienable rights of organized labor. It is for these purposes that unions are in existence. What the Federation asks is that workingmen shall have the right to a life that is worth living. It takes all the present arrangements of government and big business for granted. Its interest is centered on a square deal for the working-man.



ATTRACTIVE HOMES OF SKILLED WORKMEN

Homes of this kind make men better workmen and better citizens.

Recently Samuel Gompers, the President of the Federation, in a public address gave a brief summary of the principles which guide his decisions on labor questions. He said: "I want the man of labor to have every right to which he is entitled. I want him to have every consideration it is possible to give him. But I also want the man of labor to act toward his employers and others in a way that will entitle him to all the rights and considerations which are due others. In that way only can we build up a citizenship that will make our American Republic live forever."¹

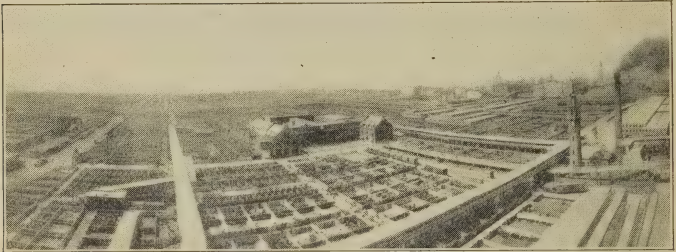
1. What is the I.W.W.? How are its principles different from those of the American Federation of Labor? Which organization do you think will accomplish more good for the nation? Why?

¹ Speech at Astoria, Oregon, October 7, 1923.

2. The Railway Brotherhoods and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers are powerful unions which do not belong to the American Federation of Labor. Why? If you know any members of these unions, talk with them concerning their organizations. If not, look up references at the end of this chapter.

5. Labor disputes of various kinds frequently extend throughout the nation.

When we remember that great corporations frequently own shops, mines, and factories in many states, and that many trades are organized on a national basis, it does not appear strange that we have nation-wide labor disputes. Strikes of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers have affected not only



UNION STOCKYARDS, CHICAGO

Meat packed here is sold in every state in the Union and in many foreign lands.

(Courtesy of Swift & Co.)

the clothing industry in Boston, New York City, and Chicago, but also have brought privation to lonely shepherds watching their flocks in the High Sierras. The steel strike of 1919 affected steel mills and iron and coal mines in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Alabama, Minnesota, Indiana, Kansas, and Illinois. The four great Railway Brotherhoods have power to tie up railway travel in every state in the Union. The United Mine Workers in 1919 were able to stop coal mining from West Virginia and Pennsylvania to Kansas. The unions of skilled workers in the packing industry can stop the packing of meat in the stockyards in Chicago, Kansas City, Omaha, and St.

Louis. Under these conditions, it is becoming more advantageous for national associations of employers to meet the representatives of union labor and to enter into some kind of national agreement.

1. It is said that the public loses every strike. What does this mean? Do you agree? Why, or Why not?

6. The causes of labor disputes are most frequently the wage-scale, the length of the working day, and the rules prevailing in the place of work.

In times of rising prices, when industry is running at full speed, labor is likely to be scarce. This scarcity and the



POLICE PROTECTION DURING A STRIKE

A number of wagons, each guarded by a squad of policemen. The occasion was a teamsters' strike in a large city.

desire of the employer to put his goods on the market while prices are high make it possible for unions to obtain increases in the wages of their members. Every great wage gain the unions have made has come in a time of rising prices. When

more goods have been produced than people will buy at the high prices, the factories and shops no longer run at full speed; labor is discharged; and attempts are made to cut wages. The year 1921 was a good example of falling prices and wage reductions. Very naturally, the unions do not enjoy losing their hard-won gains. Trouble follows. In April, 1921, employers in the building trades all over America were attempting to reduce the high wages of bricklayers, masons, and plasterers. The secretary of the international union of building tradesmen declared that in a short time turmoil and industrial unrest would be rampant. In the Typographical Union, a very interesting situation developed. The closed-shop branch of the United Typothetæ of America (the association of men who employ printers) assembled in convention in New York on September 15, 1919. At that time the association agreed to a forty-four-hour week in the closed-shop branch to become effective on May 1, 1921. This agreement meant a reduction of four hours' work per week, the men working eight hours per day and four hours on Saturday. The shortened week was to bring the same wages as the old forty-eight-hour week. When prices began to fall in the summer of 1920, one branch after another of the Typothetæ repudiated the agreement. Through various meetings of locals and conventions of the Typographical Union, much publicity was given to the details of both sides of the fight. Such repudiation of agreements can hardly be expected to produce peace and contentment among workmen. A good example of a strike for changing the conditions of employment was the steel strike of 1919. Although it makes liberal provisions for purchase of its stock by its employees, the United States Steel Corporation has always opposed labor unions. The strike of 1919 was partly for the right to organize, that the workmen might have some chance of bettering their working conditions, partly for increased wages, and partly for the abolition of the twelve-hour day. The Corporation denied that the men had a right to a union, and fought the strike to a successful conclu-

sion. At present the steel workers are one of the very few groups of workers who are not organized in some way. Also steel is one of the few large-scale industries where the twelve-hour day applies to any large number of men. However, the United States Steel Corporation has promised to abandon the twelve-hour day in the very near future.

1. Do increased wages necessarily mean better living conditions? As wages rise, are prices likely to rise? Why? Under what conditions could wages be increased without prices of the products being increased?
2. What is the closed shop? What is the open shop? In which of the two are conditions likely to be better for the workmen? In which does a man get better pay? Why are unions opposed to the open shop?
3. Do you believe in the eight-hour day? Why? How are the home conditions of a man who works twelve hours different from those of a man who works eight hours? Which man is likely to be a better citizen? Why?
4. Do you think all people are entitled to a half-holiday on Saturday? Why, or why not?

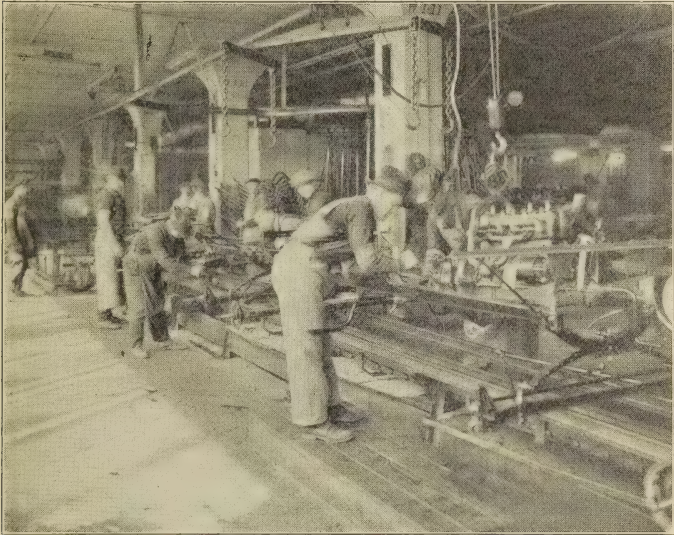
7. Many employers are solving their labor problem.

Some manufacturing plants, like the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company, are trying experiments in industrial self-government. These attempts are in answer to a long-felt need. People as a whole accept democratic government of nations, such as the United States government, as something of great value, something never to be abandoned as an ideal for all the world, something to be worked for, no matter what the cost. Ideas on democracy in industry, however, vary widely. People as a whole do not believe that the workers ought to have any voice in the management of the company which employs them. They think that the stockholders are the only ones who ought to have this power. If they applied this principle to our government, then only owners of real estate would have the right to vote. A long time ago, all the states in the Union abolished the property qualification for voting. The experi-

ment in the Goodyear Company is an effort to give the workmen a voice in the management of the company. Every man has a vote who has been in the employ of the company for six months, who speaks English, and who is an American citizen. The voters elect men to represent them in a "senate" and in a "house of representatives." Together the "senate" and the "house of representatives" are called the "assembly." The members of the "house of representatives" are chosen for one year, and the members of the "senate" for two years. Each member of the "assembly" pledges his loyalty to the Constitution of the United States, to the state of Ohio, and to the Goodyear Company. This "assembly" passes rules affecting the conduct and welfare of the men. It has made laws providing for a Saturday half-holiday in all departments, and has decreased the penalty for tardiness when traffic conditions are bad. It has also passed resolutions aimed to secure better street-car service and to assist in securing votes in favor of a bond issue for city improvements. The men have shown confidence in the future of their company by purchasing stock in it. At a sale in a recent year over seventeen thousand employees bought stock amounting to a total of \$7,700,000. When men are willing to trust their savings to the company that employs them, they show their confidence and good-will. All those interested in the growth of democracy in industry are watching this experiment of the Goodyear Company with great interest.

Another scheme for adjusting labor troubles is being tried by Hart, Schaffner and Marx, the great Chicago clothing manufacturers. After the victory of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers in 1911, the representatives of this company and the union in conference decided to form a trade board for the settlement of disputes arising in the Hart, Schaffner and Marx shops. The board consists of three men: the labor manager of the company, the president of the union, and an impartial referee paid half his salary by the company and half by the union. This board protects the rights and enforces the duties

of both the employer and the employee. It determines the conditions under which a man is entitled to hold his job, and the wages and conditions of work he may claim under his contract. A workman may be deprived of his job for good reasons; but he cannot be discharged to satisfy the personal feelings of an unfriendly employer. Before the board, all the employees of the company, foremen and workmen alike, have equal rights. The small size of the trade board enables it to



Courtesy of Ford Motor Company

MEN AT WORK IN THE FORD FACTORY

care for cases very efficiently and rapidly. Its make-up provides for justice to all. In many different places plans similar to this one are daily making laborers contented and employers more sympathetic.

Probably the most interesting of all the experiments in great concerns is the one in the Ford factory at Detroit. Henry Ford believes that the basis of good Americanism is good wages and good living conditions for workmen. In 1920

the smallest wage paid to any person employed in the factory was \$4.80 per day of eight hours. In addition to this pay, every man doing satisfactory work and living in a satisfactory way is entitled to share in the firm's profits at the rate of fifteen cents an hour or \$1.20 a day. Henry Ford believes in sharing profits immediately, not in waiting until the books are closed for the year's business. From an industrial standpoint, this kind of profit-sharing increases the factory's production, because every man tries to cooperate with his fellow workmen to the greatest possible extent. In 1920, only a fraction of one per cent were not sharing in the company's profits. The idea is not only to increase efficiency but also to encourage men to raise their standard of living, to own their own homes, and to participate in community life. When men are paid six dollars a day and are required to work only eight hours, they have both the means and the time to become healthy and educated Americans. Mr. Ford, for one, has this belief, and is putting it into practice.

1. Are there any large factories in your town or city? Have there been any strikes recently? Have the workers any voice in conducting the establishment? What does the company do for those it employs?
2. What is welfare work? How do the unions regard it? Why? What is the union attitude toward profit-sharing? Why?
3. What abuses of power common to labor unions would disappear in an organization like that in the Goodyear factory? Could the Labor Board at Hart, Schaffner and Marx be autocratic? If so, in what ways? Would it be more or less autocratic than a labor union? Why?
4. Frank A. Vanderlip says that there should be two main charges against the net profits of industry: a living wage to labor and a fair return to capital. All that is earned over and above these charges should be divided equally between the labor force and the capitalists. Do you agree? Why or why not?

8. State and local governments are helping to adjust disputes between capital and labor.

In cases of local disturbances due largely to special local conditions, the city or town officials may help to restore order. For example, when Seattle was overrun with I.W.W.'s, the courage of the mayor and the council helped to restore peace. One of Chicago's largest street-car strikes was settled by Mayor Thompson acting as arbitrator. Occasionally one hears of a city charter which provides for a labor commission to improve working conditions. As a general rule, however, a labor dispute extends over too much territory to be handled by local officials.

Many of the states are making laws to protect the working man. A law passed by the 1921 session of the Legislature of Califor-



PACKING SUN-MAID RAISINS

This picture shows an ideal workroom. Notice the chairs for the workers, the abundance of light and air, and the modern mechanical devices.

nia provides a penalty for importing strike-breakers under false representation. Under the law a worker can force an employer to return him to his home when he finds he is used for strike duty. In every state where organized labor has power, various factory laws have been passed which deal with the sanitation, lighting, ventilating, and heating of factories, with compensation for accidents from which the worker suffers in the course of his employment, with the safety of machinery, with minimum wages for women, and with child labor. A

large part of the time of each session of the legislatures in the various states is devoted to the improvement of factory and labor legislation. Through the publications of the state factory inspector's office, the public is kept informed of the industrial conditions in the state. Wherever there are up-to-date factory laws and careful, honest factory inspectors, the causes of labor difficulties are being removed. In the old days, the unions had to fight for safety devices on machinery. Now state legislatures are making these devices compulsory in all factories, mines, and shops.

1. Have there been any labor difficulties in your community recently? How were they settled? Are all parties satisfied with the settlement?
2. Is any official of your local government interested in settling labor difficulties? If so, does he have any power to enforce his decisions?

9. The Kansas law provides for a Court of Industrial Relations.

The Kansas legislature passed an important law during the strike of the coal-miners in 1920. This law provides for a Court of Industrial Relations. The law states that all persons or corporations engaged in industries affecting food, fuel, clothing, and transportation must operate them with reasonable continuity in order that the people of Kansas may at all times be supplied with the necessities of life. In case of labor disputes, the court has the right to investigate and issue an order prescribing rules, hours of labor, working conditions, and a reasonable minimum wage to be observed until the parties themselves come to some agreement. It is unlawful for any person or corporation engaged in essential industries to cease operations for the purpose of limiting production, affecting prices, or avoiding the provisions of the law.

The court is not a court of arbitration. It consists of three judges appointed by the governor with special reference to their ability to decide questions fairly. It represents government with its pledge of justice to all. The work of the court

is to investigate thoroughly and to come to a just decision without thinking of the interests of any group except the whole population of the state. The establishment of such a court is conceded by many to be a long step in advance, both for the laborer and for the capitalist. If both sides are given justice, contentment should prevail. Many people are watching the work of the court in the hope that it will be able to bring about better industrial conditions in Kansas.

1. What are some of the forces which could probably prevent this court from functioning properly?
2. Look up magazine articles upon the recent work of this court and report to the class.

10. The national government is often called upon to arbitrate disputes.

Mainly because many labor difficulties spread over large areas of our country at the same time, endangering the daily comfort and health of many citizens, the national government is called upon to decide many questions. One of the members of the President's Cabinet, the Secretary of Labor, spends all of his time in studying labor conditions and in organizing his assistants for the study of special problems. After the United States entered the World War, in April, 1917, the position of Secretary of Labor became one of the most important Cabinet offices. It was very fortunate for the nation that this Secretary, W. B. Wilson, a former miner, had already gained great influence both in the government and in labor circles. Due to his influence and the loyal stand of the American Federation of Labor, organized labor was represented on the coal, fuel, and food committees, on the war industries board, and also on the treasury committee for taxing war profits. But Secretary Wilson's most important work was the organization of the National War Labor Board to adjust disputes between capital and labor for the duration of the war. On the board were three groups: representatives of capital, representatives of labor, and representatives of the public. For

practical purposes a truce was declared between capital and labor. Both agreed not to limit the output of the nation's industries by strikes or lock-outs, and also to sacrifice something in the matter of wages and profits. The board recognized the principles of collective bargaining, of safe-guards against accidents, of the eight-hour day, and of a living-wage for all the nation's workers. On this basis over fifteen hundred cases were decided, and in a general way the decisions were accepted. In addition to supervising the work of the War Labor Board, Secretary Wilson dealt with many other problems: those of insuring a supply of labor, of publishing the facts about labor conditions through newspapers and the United States employment agencies, of providing housing for workers in government emergency work, of transportation, and those of incorporating uniform labor clauses in government contracts. Such activities on the part of our federal government show its great interest in the laboring people in America.

1. Get copies of the daily papers for the last week. Is there any reference to the work of the Secretary of Labor? If not, go to your library, where there are files of newspapers, and see what you can find. At the same time look for reports of the work of state and local agencies interested in the settlement of labor disputes.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Beard, Mary A. — *A Short History of the American Labor Movement*. (Harcourt, Brace.)

Chap. II — "Origin of American Trade Unions."

Chap. IX — "Rise of the American Federation of Labor."

Chap. X — "The American Federation of Labor and Politics."

Chap. XII — "Labor and the War."

The titles show the subjects discussed. Chapters IX and XII give good, brief accounts of the reasons why labor acts in the way it does. Chapter XII is especially good on the work of the Secretary of Labor.

2. Baker, *The New Industrial Unrest*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)

Chap. XIII — "The New Shop-Council System as Applied in a Typical Small Industry."

This is a very human, interesting account of what the new system did for a small bleachery in New York.

3. Marot, *American Labor Unions*. (Holt.)

Chap. II — "The American Federation of Labor."

Chap. IV — "The Industrial Workers of the World."

These two chapters enable the reader to get a clear idea of the difference between the two organizations.

Chap. X — "The Boycott."

Chap. XI — "Arbitration."

The aim is to show the attitude of capital and labor toward these weapons and the reasons for their development. The chapter on the boycott is especially good.

4. Interchurch World Movement, *Report on the Steel Strike of 1919*.

Pages 44-88, "The Twelve-Hour Day."

These pages give a very vivid account of the effects of a long working day.

5. *Independent*, March 13, 1920 — Allen, "Let the People Freeze."

In this article Governor Allen gives a very clear account of the conditions under which the Kansas Industrial Court was founded.

6. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.

Lesson A-28 — "The Worker in Our Society." It discusses the uncertainties and insecurities of the modern workman.

Lesson B-29 — "Labor Organizations." This lesson shows why laborers believe in unions.

Lesson B-30 — "Employment Agencies." This lesson presents an argument in favor of nation-wide employment agencies to lessen labor's losses due to unemployment.

7. *Independent*, May 1, 1920 — "Henry Ford, Miracle Maker."

This article gives an account of industrial conditions at the Ford factory in Detroit.

8. Swift and Company, *The Point of Contact*.

This interesting booklet can be obtained free of charge by writing to the Public Relations Department, Swift and Company, Union Stockyards, Chicago, Illinois. It tells what one large corporation is doing to assist its employees to live happier lives.

9. Cotter, *United States Steel*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)

Chap. XIV — "The Great Steel Strike."

This chapter gives the point of view of the corporation during the famous strike of 1919.

10. Addams, *Twenty Years at Hull House*. (Macmillan.)

Chap. X — "Pioneer Labor Legislation in Illinois."

11. Braley, *Songs of the Workaday World*. (Doran.)

This little volume of poems catches the spirit of real men at real work.

12. Parton, *Captains of Industry*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

Pages 180-88 — "Robert Owen."

13. Richardson, *The Long Day*. (Century Co.)

It is the story of a New York working girl told by herself. It gives illuminating pictures of the life and jobs of a working girl in a large city.

14. Markham, Lindsey, and Creel, *Children in Bondage*. (Hearst's International Library.)

Chap. V — "The Cost of Coal."

THE GOOD CITIZEN

Chap. VIII — "Spinners in the Dark."

These two chapters give vivid pictures of children employed in factories and mines, unfortunate abuses against which both union labor and enlightened employers are fighting.

15. Husband, *America at Work*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

The twelve chapters in this book portray American workmen on railroads, in mines, in places of danger, and in situations of thrilling interest.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Carlton, *Organized Labor in American History*. (Appleton.)

Chap. IX — "The Ideals of the Wage-Earner."

Carlton shows what these ideals are and why they have developed.

2. Gompers, *Labor and the Common Welfare*. (Dutton.)

Chap. VIII — "Labor in the War for Democracy and Liberty."

This chapter consists of very interesting extracts from reports of the American Federation of Labor and from speeches of Samuel Gompers which shows what labor's attitude is toward democratic government.

3. Brooks, *Labor's Challenge to the Social Order*. (Macmillan.)

Chap. XV — "How Long Shall We Work?"

Chap. XVIII — "The Employers' Case Against the Union."

The book is a study of the power which labor has rapidly acquired. The two chapters cited are an attempt to analyze the way in which this power is being used.

4. Baker, *The New Industrial Unrest*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)

Chap. XVI — "A Critical Examination of the Shop-Council System in the Clothing Industry."

Chap. XVII — "Foundations of the New Coöperative Movement in Industry: the New Profession of Management and the Labor Manager."

These chapters put a new light on the problem of coöperation in industry.

5. Mitchell, *The Wage-Earner and His Problem*. (Ridsdale.)

This book of 172 pages presents in concise form what the problems of the wage earner are and how he is trying to meet them.

6. Robbins, *The Labor Movement and the Farmer*. (Harcourt, Brace.)

Chap. III — "Labor's Long Trail."

Chap. IV — "American Trade Unionism."

Both of these chapters are historical, the former dealing with the origin and development of the labor problem in England, and the latter with unionism in the United States.

7. Clarkson, *Industrial America in the World War*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

Chap. XV — "The Control of Labor."

8. Storey, *Problems of To-day*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

Chap. IV — "The Labor Question."

This chapter is an excellent presentation of the problems of labor: the I.W.W., the strike, profit-sharing, etc.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE MODERN FARMER

THE third essential element in producing commodities is land. By land we mean nature's gifts of water, soil, mineral deposits, forests, etc. When men apply their labor and capital to these resources, then these gifts are transformed into such shape that they are able to satisfy our needs. In this chapter we shall see how the farmer applies his labor and uses his capital to make his land produce the food and clothing upon which our well-being depends.

Problems for you to investigate

FEEDING OUR COMMUNITY

I.

- A. Make a list of the most important foods our country produces. On an outline map of the United States show the areas which specialize in supplying these foods. File this map in your notebook.
- B. Choose any one of the foods in your list. (If possible, each member of the class should make a different choice.) Trace it from the producer to your own table. Include at least the following steps:
 1. Location of the farm or ranch where the food was produced.
 2. The first purchaser, that is, a coöperative association, a packing house, a commission merchant, retailer, or individual.
 3. Method of transportation from farm or ranch to purchaser.
 4. Successive purchasers, and changes made in the food by canning, packing, processing, milling, etc. Give method of transportation in each case.
 5. Government inspection.
 - a. How and when does the national government

inspect food carried from one state to another? Look up pure food laws, especially the Pure Food and Drugs Act of 1906. There are many magazine articles on this branch of the federal government's work.

- b. Local inspection of food. Get reports of your local health department on inspection of markets, stores, etc.

II.

- A. Choose any food produced in your community. Show what methods are used to put it in the final consumer's hands with as little expenditure of time and money as possible. If a coöperative association markets the food, you probably will be able to get helpful reports from it.
- B. Appoint a committee of your class to invite a member of your local health department to talk to your class on methods of food inspection in your community.

III.

- A. On a map of your local community locate:
 1. Public markets where farmers sell directly to the consumer.
 2. Wholesale groceries.
 3. Retail groceries which are centrally located and aim to serve every section of your community.
 4. Small stores serving a limited area.
- B.
 1. Compare the number of small stores with the number of large centrally located ones. Do you think the grocery business is an example of large-scale industry? Why?
 2. Are all neighborhoods in your community equally well supplied with small stores? If not, try to discover the reasons.

i. Agriculture is the basic industry of America.

During the World War the need for increased supplies of food directed the attention of the entire nation toward the farmer and his work. Great new areas of land were put under cultivation. Scientific methods were applied to many phases of agriculture, dairying, and stock-raising. Vacant lots in

residence districts in our cities and towns were converted into vegetable gardens. School children in the city and in the country planted school gardens and learned how to increase and to conserve our food supply. There were meatless and wheatless days on which all loyal Americans willingly abstained from meat and wheat in order that greater shipments might be made to our Allies and to our own troops. From November 1,



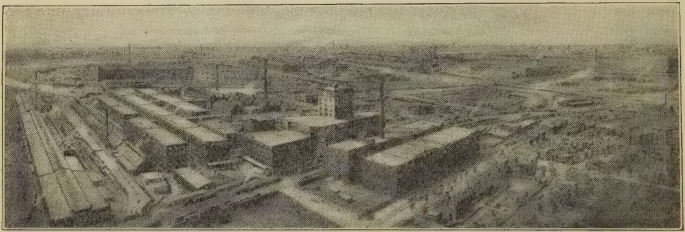
A SCHOOL GARDEN

Millions of children learned the joy of making things grow during the stress of the World War. A large number of these children are still enthusiastic gardeners.

1917, to November 1, 1918, over a billion pounds of beef and beef products, over two billion pounds of pork and pork products, six hundred thousand pounds of dairy products, and nearly four hundred thousand bushels of grain were sent to the Allies, the Belgian Relief, the American Red Cross, and the American Expeditionary Forces. A very large part of these supplies was made possible by the patriotic efforts of the farmers who increased the supply of food and by the

coöperation of all the people who helped to conserve food. The general public realized the importance of the farmer's work as it had never realized it before.

Although the farmer always receives more attention in war-time than during years of peace, his success is at all times the foundation of our national prosperity. Financial interests in New York are concerned with what the farmer is doing. Almost daily the banks in the rural districts of Iowa, Illinois, and Minnesota receive letters from Eastern manufacturers and



PLANT OF THE INTERNATIONAL HARVESTER COMPANY, CHICAGO

A very large part of all the farm machinery used in America is manufactured in this factory. Without this machinery the farmer could not do his work well. Without the food grown by the farmers the workers in this factory would starve. (*Courtesy of the International Harvester Company.*)

business men which ask about the agricultural outlook. The owner of a Detroit automobile factory watches crop reports from Texas, Illinois, Iowa, Georgia, Ohio, Missouri, and other agricultural states, for he knows that prosperous farmers are interested in automobiles. Poor crops mean privation not only for the farmer but also for city people. If food is scarce and prices are high, city dwellers have to spend a large part of their earnings on this one item. Factories which depend upon rural trade frequently close when crops are poor, and many city workers thus become unemployed. In these and in many other ways the prosperity of the nation depends upon the farmer's prosperity. The farmer supplies not only food and raw materials for the great manufacturing and trading centers, but also a market for the output of industrial concerns.

1. Why are farmers called the back-bone of the nation? When discontented Europeans come to America to spread propaganda, do they usually talk to farmers or to city people? Why? Why is the attitude of the farmer toward government likely to be different from that of the worker in the city?
2. Why did the English settlements in colonial America grow faster than those of other nations? Do you see any relation between agriculture and permanent settlement?
3. How many of the pupils in your class have home gardens? How many belong to canning clubs? To pig clubs? To corn clubs? How many are interested in judging stock? Have any of your classmates won prizes for work along these lines? In what ways does proficiency in agricultural pursuits benefit our country?

2. Our national and state governments are interested in the settlement of vacant lands.

After every great war in our history the federal government has urged disabled soldiers to settle upon unoccupied land. Ten million acres in western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana, and adjoining territory were given to veterans of the American Revolution. About sixty million acres of land were given to veterans of the Mexican War. Most of this land was west of the Mississippi River. The Homestead Act, passed by Congress in 1862, provided that any head of a family might obtain one hundred and sixty acres of land if he paid a small fee and lived on the land for five years. About two hundred million acres of good farm land were settled in this way. Induced by the ease of getting land, men went from the more thickly settled regions into the great plains of the Dakotas, Montana, and Minnesota. They made use of the new farm machinery and grew grain for the armies of the North, thus helping to preserve the Union.

Gradually the land fit for farming in its natural state has been occupied. At present most of the land open to settlement under the Homestead Act requires drainage, as in Florida, or irrigation, as in New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, and Cali-

ifornia, or fertilization as in many states where the soil lacks sufficient available food for growing crops. In 1902, Congress passed the Reclamation Act, the effects of which we saw in our study of soil and water conservation.

At the close of the World War in 1918, Franklin K. Lane, the Secretary of the Interior, submitted a plan for the settlement of land by returned soldiers. His idea was to employ soldiers to help to reclaim swamps, desert land, and former timber land; and to permit these men to purchase farms in the reclaimed land at a reasonable price with thirty or forty years to complete their payments. As the Secretary himself said, "Instead of destroying our enemies, the soldier is to develop our resources." Although the national government has not yet been able to carry out these ideas, many of the states have put them into practice. California, for one, has established a Land Settlement Board which offers special inducements to soldiers. Other states, like New York and Massachusetts, are helping their returned soldiers to reclaim abandoned farms.

1. Do you know any people who have acquired land from the government under the Homestead Act? When was the land acquired? What is its value per acre now? What has made the land increase in value?
 2. Is there any land open to settlement in your state? Find out if any irrigation projects or drainage projects are being carried on in your state.
 3. The General Land Office in the Department of Interior, Washington, D.C., publishes a large wall map showing the land surveys, the national forests, and other such items. It may be secured for one dollar from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. If your school has not already acquired this map, discuss plans for getting one for your class.
- 3. The industrial revolution has brought many changes to the farmer.**

In 1833, practically all the work on the farm, except plowing and harrowing, was done by hand. There had been very few

improvements in farming methods for thousands of years. Grain was still sown broadcast by hand and reaped with the sickle. In some places the farmers used an adaptation of the scythe called a "cradle," an implement much more efficient than the simple sickle. Threshing was done with a flail in much the same way as it had been done in ancient Egypt and Babylonia. Hay was mown with a scythe, and was raked and pitched by hand. Acres of corn were planted by hand and cultivated with a hoe just as a boy plants and cultivates a patch of corn in his back yard. By 1866 all these methods had



OLD METHOD OF PLOWING

Statisticians estimate that it took three hours and three minutes of the farmer's time to raise a bushel of grain in 1850. (Courtesy of the International Harvester Company.)



NEW METHOD OF PLOWING

The use of recently invented machinery has so changed farming that a bushel of grain can now be grown with the expenditure of only ten minutes of the farmer's time. (Courtesy of the International Harvester Company.)

changed. Except in a few backward regions, every one of these operations was done by machinery driven by horse-power.

The cause of these changes lay in the industrial revolution, the effects of which we have seen in our study of the textile industry, in the development of communication and transportation, and in the spread of knowledge. Agriculture developed because the factory towns of New England were calling for increased sup-

plies of food. Great numbers of Americans pushed westward into the fertile Mississippi Valley. Also, the potato famine in Ireland, in 1846, and the political uprisings in Europe in 1848 caused a large number of immigrants to come to our shores by the newly established steamship lines. Some of these newcomers settled in the cities of the East, while others took up land in the new West. This period was marked by the growth of the railroads. Although there were no important railroads in the United States in 1833, by 1836 there were thirty thousand miles of railroad in operation. In 1830, there began a great period of invention of farm machinery similar to the great period of invention of textile machinery. The mowing machine was invented in 1831. Three years later came the McCormick reaper. Three years after this invention was completed, the first steel plow was made. In 1840, the threshing machine came into use. Since that time there have been very many improvements in farm machinery, so many, in fact, that American farm machinery is marketed in every civilized country.

All these conditions changed methods of farming to such an extent that farmers began to specialize in certain crops. Illinois became a corn-growing, hog-raising state, while Wisconsin developed dairying, the South specialized in cotton and sugar cane, and the far West devoted itself to fruit. Such specialization would have been impossible without the means of exchanging products. As the railroads worked their way into the new regions, they brought with them the products of far-away workers. Farmers in California were able to specialize in growing fruit because the railroads brought them clothing from the East and implements from the Middle West. The use of machinery greatly increased the size of farms, producing changes most evident in the prairie states where grain could be grown easily, and where the new machinery could be drawn over the great level stretches of land. Previously farms were limited in size by man's strength. With the new machinery drawn by horses, the amount of work a man could

do in a day was increased many times. Therefore, every new man who came into the western prairies produced more than he could consume. With his surplus he purchased more machinery for his farm, furnishings for his home, and clothing for his family, as well as stocks and bonds of the manufacturers in the East. Thus the farmer in the West himself became rich and by his purchases and investments helped to enrich others.

1. How do freight rates on the railroads affect the farmers in your community? Talk with some farmer you know and find out his views.
2. From what places is farm machinery shipped into your community? What are the machines most commonly in use? Can you run any of them? If so, compare the work you can do with the machine to the amount you can do in the same length of time by hand.

4. The local, state, and national governments are helping the farmer to raise better crops.

In the same year that Congress passed the Homestead Act, it also established a Department of Agriculture in charge of a Commissioner of Agriculture. The law creating the Department says that its duties "shall be to diffuse among the people of the United States useful information on subjects connected with agriculture, and to procure, propagate, and distribute valuable seeds and plants." In 1889, after years of effort on the part of the nation's farmers, this Department was put in charge of a Secretary, who is a member of the President's Cabinet. The Department publishes numerous professional papers, the results of research of eminent scientists, and the famous farmers' bulletins, practical papers written expressly for the use of farmers, and the *Yearbook*. Prior to 1923, seeds were distributed in large quantities to all parts of the United States. Much valuable work has been done in coöperation with the state experiment stations. At present there are about sixty such stations, most of them in connection with the state universities and their colleges of agriculture. These col-

leges are not only educating young people to use scientific methods in agriculture, but are also carrying on extension work throughout the state for the benefit of the state's farmers. The scope of this work has been greatly enlarged by the aid of funds received by the states from the national treasury under the Smith-Lever Act of 1914. Under this law each state desiring to take advantage of the national aid provided by the Act must appropriate a sum of money for agricultural



DEMONSTRATION LECTURE

Groups of farmers travel over the county under the leadership of the farm advisor, whose duty it is to point out good and bad methods of raising crops. Through association on trips like this one, the farmers develop community spirit and the will to become better farmers. (*Courtesy of J. P. Benson.*)

extension work equal to that received from the national government. Here is a fine example of coöperation between the governments of the state and nation for the benefit of those who are citizens of the state and nation.

During the last ten years there has been a tendency for the farmers of agricultural counties to form farm bureaus. A farm bureau is an organization of the farmers of a county for the promotion of the county's agricultural interests. Every farmer is urged to coöperate. Every community in the county has a committee to secure new members, to study the local

community's special needs, and to lead the way to coöperation with every other community in the county. All the members elect an executive committee to manage the bureau's affairs. Through this executive committee are brought together the rural organizations of the county, such as the county fair associations, the organizations of breeders of cattle and of



A DAIRY HERD

The County Farm Bureau stands ready to assist the owners of herds in every possible way. The farmer, the county, the state, and the nation are all coöperating to improve methods of breeding stock, of raising grain, and of producing fruits and vegetables.

poultry, the county schools, the branches of coöperative marketing associations, and other groups of farmers. The central idea is to secure team-work not only in the communities of the county but also in these organizations. Nearly every bureau has a leader usually called a county farm advisor, or a county agricultural agent. He is paid partly by county funds, partly by state funds, and partly by national funds. Under his professional leadership the county is able to organize and to improve its farming methods, to wage war on pests,



YOUNG FARMERS

Under the guidance of the farm advisor these boys are learning scientific methods of farming. Incidentally they are gaining valuable experience which will help them to choose their vocation wisely. (Courtesy of J. P. Benson.)

to promote the interests of boys and girls by having canning clubs, corn clubs, and pig clubs, to help the farmer select his seed, and to teach the farmer's wife new methods of preserving meat, vegetables, and fruit. One of the largest civic undertakings in the life of an agricultural county is its county fair. In counties where the farmers have learned to work together through their farm bureau, these fairs are the focus of the community's life.

1. What work is the United States Department of Agriculture doing in your state? What is your nearest Agricultural Experiment Station doing? (A letter of inquiry from your class to the Experiment Station will be worth while. Ask for its latest report showing the work it has done and for a list of its publications.)

2. Why are our state and national governments appropriating money for extension work among farmers? Was not part of this money paid to these governments as taxes by city people? Is it right to spend the money of city people on advancing the interests of farmers? Why?
 3. Is there a farm bureau in your county? If so, who is the farm advisor? Watch your local newspapers for articles concerning his work. Clip and post on the bulletin board in your room.
 4. In some communities where pupils have marked interest in agriculture, junior farm bureaus have been organized. Consult with the advisor of your local farm bureau as to the possibility of organizing a junior farm bureau in your school.
- 5. The farmer's most difficult problem is marketing his produce.**

The simplest system of marketing is one by which the farmer sells directly to the consumer. This system is possible only to a limited extent. For example, farmers near towns and cities can sometimes persuade these centers of population to have public markets to which the farmers may bring their produce on certain days. At these markets the public may purchase fresh fruit, vegetables, meat, dairy products, and poultry at reasonable prices. The system is advantageous for the farmer because he makes all the profit on the sales, and it is a boon to the public because the food actually is fresh and is usually sold at a lower price than that asked by the stores. However, these markets cannot solve the whole problem of marketing, largely because of the present method of specialization. The people in the cities and towns of Arizona, for example, cannot possibly eat all the meats and fruits that the state produces yearly, nor can its factories use all the cotton grown in its fields and the copper taken from its mines. Markets in distant places must be sought.

Selling to buyers who come to the farm is a system in common use throughout the United States. For example, purchasing agents for woolen mills in our eastern states travel through Texas and the Rocky Mountain states in search of

various grades of wool. When they find the desired quantity and quality they go to the owner of the sheep and enter into an agreement with him. In due season the wool is shipped directly from the ranch to the factory. Likewise, purchasing agents for canneries spend most of their time visiting ranches,



THE PUBLIC MARKET IN A CITY OF SIXTY THOUSAND

The law governing this market says that only *bona-fide* farmers may offer produce for sale. The idea is to enable the farmer to sell directly to the consumer.

inspecting growing fruit and vegetables and making contracts with growers. Frequently long-time contracts are made by which the producer agrees to sell all his goods to a certain firm for a term of years.

A large part of all the nation's raw products are sold to middlemen, usually commission merchants. The evils of this system rise through certain dishonest methods of some commission merchants and through the increase in the number of middlemen. For example, a common way of marketing live stock is for the farmer or rancher to ship to a commission

merchant at a large packing center. Here the animals are sold to the packers, who, in turn, frequently sell to wholesalers, who sell to retailers who sell to the general public. The system is just like "the house that Jack built," except that every step in the series of buyers and sellers usually means a profit to that particular man and consequently a lessened profit to the producer. Under this system the farmer



UNION TERMINAL, LOS ANGELES

This picture shows the second largest wholesale district in the world. About one million dollars' worth of business is transacted here each week. Goods are shipped to commission merchants at this terminal from all parts of the United States, Mexico, South America, Japan, and China. (*Courtesy of Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce.*)

often receives as little as one-tenth of the price which the final consumer pays. Occasionally the farmer finds himself in debt after he has shipped several carloads of vegetables, fruit, or cattle. Sometimes the product is of poor quality, or badly packed, or not salable. Sometimes unscrupulous commission men make such reports when they are untrue. Such experiences discourage the farmer and increase the cost of liv-

ing for city people. One of the important problems our nation faces is that of reducing the number of middlemen between the producer and the consumer.

1. What is a profiteer? Why are food profiteers considered worse than other kinds? In what ways does our system of marketing goods make large profits for middlemen possible? Can you suggest any remedies?
2. Is there a public market in your community? How is it regulated? Do you know any farmers who sell goods at the public market? If so, ask them what they think of this means of disposing of their goods.

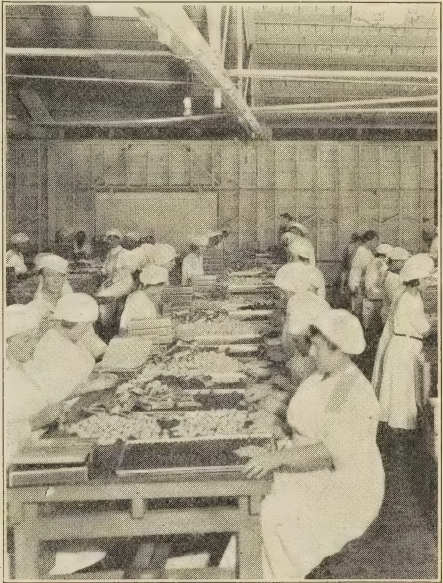
6. Many groups of farmers are forming coöperative associations.

During the last ten years there has been a very widespread movement among farmers for the formation of coöperative associations. Among the most successful have been the Coöperative Creameries in Wisconsin, the Coöperative Grain Elevators in the wheat regions, the coöperative marketing systems of grain-producers in many parts of the country, of the cotton-growers in the South, of the stock-raisers of the great cattle states, and of the fruit-growers of Florida and California. In general, the aims of a coöperative association are:

a. To build up markets in which the association of farmers sells directly to wholesalers and retailers. Most coöperative associations have sales managers who study market conditions and direct their salesmen where to go. When sales are made the association ships the goods direct to the purchaser. There are no commission men who take a part of the profit. There is little waste, for the sales manager knows exactly where to send his goods. This sales manager also supervises national advertising campaigns to encourage the consumption of the produce of his association. Through this kind of advertising nearly everybody in the United States has come to know the value of Sun-Maid raisins, and of Sun-Kist oranges and

lemons. These brands and many others have been developed through the advertising of coöperative associations.

b. To improve the product. Nearly all coöperative associations are very strict in the grading of their members' produce. For example, the California Fruit Growers' Exchange has definite methods by which oranges are graded. Only the finest are packed and sold under the Sun-Kist brand, but the Exchange ships under other labels several brands of oranges which do not come up to the requirements of the Sun-Kist brand. As this brand brings the best price to the producer, every grower is anxious to have his oranges come up to the required standard. Every member of the Exchange receives the *Citrograph*, a monthly journal devoted to the interests of the citrus industry. It



PACKING BLUE RIBBON FIG BROWNIES

The California Peach and Fig Growers' Association packs and ships the fruit grown by its members. This picture shows women packing the new confection made of figs and sugar. (Courtesy of Fresno County Chamber of Commerce.)

contains news about experiments being made in various places; results of studies in methods of pruning, irrigation, fertilization, and frost and pest control, and general news about market conditions. Every successful grower has a chance to tell through the columns of this journal how he achieved his success. Through this interchange of ideas the journal helps to bind the members of the association together and to improve the quality of the oranges raised. Scientific men, who are specialists in

their fields, are employed by the Exchange to study and advise the growers in every step in the production of their fruit. No activity of the coöperative association has met with more approval from the grower and from the general public than these efforts to improve the quality of farm produce.

c. To stabilize prices. Both the public and the farmer are deeply interested in prices. When goods are sold to a commission man there is a great deal of speculation. The commission man may be able to buy up so large a part of the product that he can ask very high prices from the wholesaler and pay very low prices to the farmer. These prices may be so low that the farmer may refuse to plant any more of that crop. It is the business of the coöperative associations to put goods on the market only as they are needed by wholesalers and retailers. If the association carries on an effective advertising campaign and succeeds in creating a great demand, it will be able to sell all its product at such a price that the farmer will make both a comfortable living and a profit and he will want to keep on farming.

A good example of a successful coöperative association is the California Peach and Fig Growers' Association. During the four years prior to the organization of the association, the prices paid to the growers for dried peaches were as follows:

Year of 1912.....	4½ cents per pound
Year of 1913.....	4 cents per pound
Year of 1914.....	4 cents per pound
Year of 1915.....	3 cents per pound

During the seven years immediately following the organization of the coöperative association, the prices paid to the growers for their dried peaches have been very much more satisfactory. They are as follows:

Year of 1916.....	6¼ cents per pound
Year of 1917.....	8½ cents per pound
Year of 1918.....	11 cents per pound
Year of 1919.....	14¾ cents per pound
Year of 1920.....	12¼ cents per pound
Year of 1921.....	7½ cents per pound
Year of 1922.....	10 cents per pound

Of course war conditions had something to do with this increase in returns, but the coöperative methods of marketing put these returns into the hands of the farmers and not into the hands of the speculators.

1. Have the farmers in your state formed any coöperative associations? If so, what are their brands? Appoint a committee to write to the central office for any information they can get.
2. Do you believe in the principles of coöperative marketing? Why, or why not?
3. Look through recent copies of such magazines as the *Saturday Evening Post* and find as many advertisements of coöperative associations as you can.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Dunn, *Community Civics and Rural Life*. (Heath.)
 Chap. XIV — "The Relation between the People and the Land."
 This chapter gives a good, accurate account of the government land survey and its uses.
2. Farmers' Bulletins. For recent developments in coöperative marketing, rural education, etc., these bulletins furnish excellent material. Ask your librarian for the Index and find bulletins by number.
3. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
 Lesson B-2 — "The Varied Occupations of a Colonial Farm." It is a good picture of a colonial farm before the effects of the industrial revolution were felt.
 Lesson C-13 — "Market Reports on Fruits and Vegetables." The lesson describes the work of the Bureau of Markets in the Department of Agriculture.
 Lesson B-26 — "Concentration in the Marketing of Citrus Fruits." This is a description of the California Fruit Growers' Exchange.
 Lesson C-11 — "Effects of Marketing on Rural Life."
 Lesson B-4 — "Feeding a City."
4. *Saturday Evening Post*, January 15, 1921. "Eliminating the Middleman."
 This article is a discussion of our system of marketing goods through an army of middlemen, wholesalers, and retailers. It tells why a simpler system does not come into general use.
5. Fowler, *Starting in Life*. (Little, Brown & Co.)
 Pages 47-60 — "The Agriculturist."
6. Casson, *Cyrus H. McCormick: His Life and Work*. (McClurg.)
 This book is the biography of our greatest inventor of farm machinery. It is well written and interesting.
7. Dean, *Opportunities in Farming*. (Harper's.)
8. Shute, *The Real Diary of the Worst Farmer*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 Every boy and girl who knows anything about scientific agriculture will enjoy immensely the methods used by this author, lawyer, agriculturist.

9. Cobb, *The Abandoned Farmers*. (Doran.)
This book is a humorous account of a retreat from the city to the farm. It is Irvin Cobb at his best.
10. Kile, *The Farm Bureau Movement*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. vii — "The First Farm Bureau."
11. Sanford, *The Story of Agriculture in the United States*. (Heath.)
Chap. v — "Some General Features of Colonial Agriculture."
Chap. vi — "Colonial Agriculture, North and South."
Chap. x — "Pioneer Farmers of the West."
Chap. xxi — "The Age of Machinery."

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Cumberland, *Coöperative Marketing*. (Princeton University Press.)
Chap. v — "Constitution of the California Fruit Growers' Exchanges."
Chap. x — "Benefits of Coöperation for Producers."
2. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bulletin No. 825 (January 30, 1920) —
"Rural Community Buildings in the United States."
This bulletin gives the findings of a survey of facilities for rural recreation.
3. Carver, *Principles of Rural Economics*. (Ginn.)
Chap. ii — "Historical Sketch of Modern Agriculture."
Chap. vi — "Problems of Rural Social Life."
Carver is one of America's best students of rural life.
4. Taylor, *Agricultural Economics*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. viii — "What Should the Nation Produce?"
Chap. ix — "Land as a Basis of Agricultural Production."
Chap. xi — "The Human Basis of Agricultural Production."
Chap. xxvii — "The Farmer and the Middleman."
Chap. xxix — "The Social Side of Farm Life."
5. Powell, *Coöperation in Agriculture*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. vi — "Breeders' and Growers' Associations."
6. Sherlock, *The Modern Farm Coöperative Movement*. (Homestead Co., Des Moines, Iowa.)
Chap. i — "Mr. Farmer Gets Together."
Chap. ii — "Farm Coöperation Today."
Chap. iii — "History of the Movement."
Chap. iv — "Causes of Unrest."
Chap. v — "Orderly Marketing."

CHAPTER XIX

THE MEANING OF DEMOCRACY

ALTHOUGH we have been studying the means employed by our public school system to teach democracy to our children, the contributions of the home and the newspaper to our democracy, and the efforts of workmen to promote democracy in our industrial life, we have not yet made any careful study of the meaning of democracy. In this chapter we shall see what democracy is, how its meaning develops amid our changing institutions, and what conditions are making possible the formation and realization of our democratic ideals.

Problems for you to investigate

THE RELATION OF OUR DEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENT TO OUR NATURAL RESOURCES

- I. Both in our study of conservation and of the modern farmer we saw that it has been the policy of our national government to encourage our citizens to establish homes in the new lands annexed to our original boundaries. Thus thousands of families have become owners of homes, farms, and ranches.
 1. If our government had been an autocracy (see section 2 of this chapter), to whom would the lands probably have been given? Why?
 2. If it had been an absolute monarchy (see section 2), who would probably have obtained the vacant lands? Why?
 3. If our government had been socialistic (see section 2), who would own most of our lands? Why?
 4. If our government had been in control of anarchists (see section 2), what arrangements would probably have been made about lands west of the Mississippi? Why?
- II. Get five small outline maps of the United States. Consult any recently published advanced geography or encyclopædia for data concerning the location of:
 1. Coal.
 2. Timber.

3. Sources of water power.
4. Rich farming areas.
5. Important minerals.

Transfer this information to your maps, using a separate map for each type of national resource. Study your maps carefully with a view to answering the following questions:

1. How do the natural resources of your state compare with those of other states?
2. Which states are very rich in natural resources?
3. Which states are comparatively poor in natural resources?

III. Get an outline map of your state. Make a list of the natural resources from your maps made in Part II. Adopt some color scheme and mark the regions in which each resource is found in abundance.

1. What agencies of your state government are working for the conservation of the state's natural resources? Appoint members of your class to review briefly the material you collected in your study of conservation.
2. The Geological Survey, the Reclamation Service, and the Bureau of Mines in the Department of Interior, and the United States Forest Service in the Department of Agriculture are some forms of the federal agencies interested in the conservation of our national resources. Assign special students to review previous work and to make special reports on the work of these agencies.

IV. On the basis of your study discuss the relationships of our free land policy and our abundant supply of natural resources to:

1. Funds available for public education, public libraries, public art galleries, etc. How do these institutions help us to maintain our democratic ideals?
2. Wages of workingmen and their ability to keep their children in school.
3. Leisure for all adults to take advantage of night schools, correspondence courses, etc.
4. Home ownership and attractive home surroundings. Why are people in a democratic nation especially interested in home ownership?
5. Parks, playgrounds, and general health of the community.

1. Democracy is a principle of government.

A government is democratic when it is *of* the people, *for* the people, and *by* the people, that is, when its duties are performed without class distinctions, either by the people themselves or by their elected representatives, and for the best interests of the whole community. It is this principle of popular rule upon which republics are founded. A republic is democratic because its citizens have equal rights before the law, and because the government is conducted by the duly elected representatives of the people in the interest of all. Switzerland and the United States are federated republics, for they are divided into local districts called cantons by the Swiss, and called states by us, which have control of local affairs. France is a centralized republic because the local affairs of the "departments" into which the country is subdivided are administered through officials in Paris. Thus democracy does not determine the outward form of the government, but rather the inward spirit in which the citizens accept their privileges and responsibilities.

1. What purposes are set forth in the preamble to our national Constitution? What words show that the purpose of the Constitution is to establish a democratic government?

2. Democracy differs from every other principle of government.

An autocracy is different from a democracy because it is ruled by one man, or by a few men, usually for the good of a small group which has exceptional privileges. Before the World War, Germany, Russia, and Turkey were autocratic governments. In Germany the Kaiser was surrounded by a privileged group of militarists. A large percentage of the citizens had the right to vote; but since voting was so conducted that the votes of those who paid the most taxes counted for most, a rich man's vote in many cases was worth three or four hundred times as much as a poor man's. A government founded on this principle is plutocratic; that is, controlled by the wealthy largely for their own advantage.

A monarchy is different from a democracy because it recognizes class distinctions. In England, for example, there are dukes, earls, lords, and princes who have special privileges. Some of them have inherited seats in the House of Lords, the assemblage corresponding in some ways to our Senate. People with titles have special social privileges not enjoyed by those born in ordinary families, no matter how great their abilities may be. In spite of these class distinctions the common people of England enjoy a large measure of democracy because, for one thing, they elect representatives to the House of Commons whose leaders compose the British Cabinet, the great executive head of the nation. As all bills for raising money must originate in the House of Commons, the people have protection against excessive taxation and can direct the expenditure of the nation's money. Thus there is a considerable degree of democracy under the limited monarchies which are the rule to-day. Monarchies of times past, however, were by no means democratic and did not recognize the rights of the people; for example, the France of Louis XVI was an absolute monarchy, a pure autocracy, run by the king in the interests of the king alone.

A democracy is different from Socialistic government in that socialism calls for government ownership and control of industry. In the eyes of the socialist, the great concentrations in industry, like those in the manufacture of steel and in the refining of oil, are bringing our industries into larger and larger organizations which will eventually be owned and controlled by the government. The socialist believes that the cure for all our industrial ills is more government intervention and supervision than we have at present. He puts all his faith in the ability of the government to manage industry better than it is managed under our existing system of private ownership and competition.

The anarchist has a very different theory, for he believes that all the evils of our political and industrial institutions spring from too much government. If governments were

abolished, he says, human beings would be completely free and happy. Sometimes socialists and anarchists work together, for they are both interested in changing our present institutions. Beyond a certain point, however, they part company, the socialist that he may vest all power in the government, and the anarchist that he may prevent any government from being formed. As a rule, only those people become anarchists who live or who have lived under very oppressive governments. For example, many brilliant men in Russia before the World War were forced into anarchistic methods of thinking by the autocratic power of the Czar. In a free, democratic republic, like ours, there is no reason and no place for the anarchist. We have opportunities to express our grievances through our elected representatives. The chief purpose of our government is not to censor newspapers, to pry into private affairs, to prohibit public meetings and public discussions, and to enrich the men in power, as was the purpose of the Czar's government. On the other hand, our government has been established for the purpose of guarding the rights of "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness" of every one of our countrymen.

1. Is the government of your family group a democracy? When you were a small child what was the principle of government in your family? Why does the principle of government in the family usually change as the children grow up? What is likely to happen if no such change is made? Why?
 2. What principle of government is present in your classes in school? Explain why the rule in some classes is more democratic than in others?
 3. Are the clubs in your school democratic? Give reasons for your answer.
- 3. The founders of our nation were trained in the democratic management of their local governments.**

When Thomas Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence in 1776, he put into words the ideals which were current

among the American colonists. Very few men took time or energy to give exact expression to these theories about liberty and equality. The great majority of the colonists were interested mainly in conducting their daily affairs secure from disturbance. Our government originated in the practical experience gained by generation after generation of colonists in managing their own political affairs, especially their local



INTERIOR OF INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA

Among the noteworthy events which occurred in this room are the signing of the Declaration of Independence, Washington's acceptance of his appointment as General of the Continental Army, and the assemblage of the Federal Convention to frame a Constitution for the United States of America. (*Rau Studios.*)

affairs. The struggle against English rule was the result of unjust restrictions on commerce and manufactures, not of discontent in regard to fundamental political institutions. The purpose for which the Revolution was fought was to enable the colonists to throw off "the long train of abuses and usurpations" and "to provide new guards for their future security." These new guards of the new nation were patterned after the

institutions which had grown up in colonial times under the influence of English traditions and the new life in the new country.

a. One school in which the colonists had learned to practice democracy was the New England town meeting. Because the people had little opportunity to exercise power in the colonial legislature, they were the more interested in their local affairs. In royal colonies, like Massachusetts, the governor was usually appointed by the King of England and had extensive powers. He summoned, adjourned, and dissolved the colonial legislature; he appointed sheriffs, who had charge of all the elections for the members of the legislature; he nominated the colonial council; he appointed military officers and levied troops; he was the head of the highest court in the colony; he granted pardons and reprieves; and he supervised the enforcement of the colonial laws. With all these powers vested in the governor, it is small wonder that the people centered their interest in the management of their local affairs.

From the early days of colonial New England the local affairs of all the towns were handled by annual meetings of the freemen in their various settlements. A meeting of this kind elected a chairman who was called a moderator, and then proceeded to elect a town clerk, a group of selectmen usually seven in number, overseers of the poor, firewards, a town treasurer, clerks of the market, fence-viewers, hogreeves, scavengers, and other officers. It levied taxes for the payment of the schoolmasters, for the relief of the poor, and for other purposes approved by the meeting. It elected tax collectors and provided for their pay. It listened to petitions from various townsmen or groups of townsmen, and took action on them. At the town meetings the citizens passed such laws as local conditions made necessary. Thus the town meeting was a direct democracy.

b. In the South, also, the colonists learned methods of self-government. Government was not as democratic as in New England for several reasons, chief among which was the way

in which the land was held. Large areas had been granted to English aristocrats who developed huge plantations, first with the assistance of indentured servants from England, and later with negro slaves. Although the slaves performed the manual labor both in the fields and in the homes, and were thus the foundation upon which community prosperity was built, they had no rights other than those granted by their masters. This habit of dominating over slaves in their home life and on their plantations led the slave owners to believe that they alone were fitted to manage governmental affairs. Within their own group, however, they were democratic and self-sacrificing.

In the colonial assembly the county was the unit of representation. Through it were administered the military, judicial, highway, and financial matters of concern to the community. The wealthy planters were the county officials and the advisors of the governor. There were no free schools, for the slaves were not taught school subjects and the planters, for the most part, were too far apart to make coöperation with one another easy. Children in Virginia, for example, were taught by private tutors in their own homes, and were later sent to schools in England. In spite of these aristocratic institutions, the South, especially Virginia, developed a feeling of common loyalty and common understanding among the planters. George Washington, the richest and most influential of them all, showed his love of freedom by casting his lot with the revolutionists. He did not theorize about human rights. He saw that unjust taxation and unjust laws were ruining the health, wealth, and happiness of the settlers around him. He set about to right these abuses armed with the experiences which his part in the local affairs of his own colony had given him.

1. In what ways is an athletic team in your school similar to a New England town meeting? In what ways is it different?
2. Is the government of your school more like that of a New England town meeting or of a Virginia colony? Why?

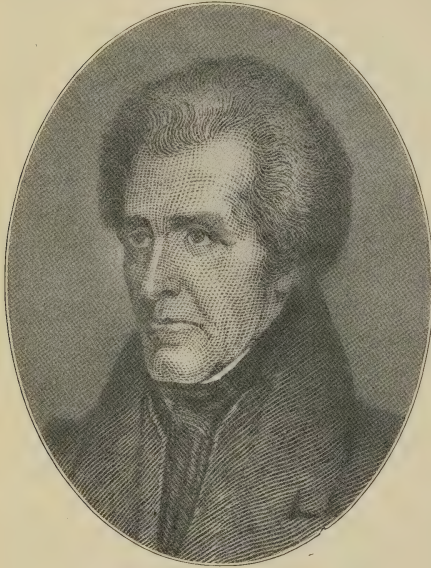
3. In what ways is the principal of your school similar to a royal governor of Massachusetts in colonial times? In what ways is he different? Why?
4. **The leaders of our nation are constantly giving new meanings to democracy.**

The men who sat in the famous Constitutional Convention of 1787 put little into the Constitution which was actually new. In it they embodied the principles of popular rule through elected representatives for which liberty-loving Englishmen were striving both in England and in America. As we have seen, the revolt against English rule was an expression not of discontent with English ideals of freedom, but with the usurpation of power by the English king. Hence the framers of our Constitution developed a system of checks and balances in the various departments of the government in order that no one officer or group in one branch might have power over officers or groups of another branch, and that the will of the people might be effective in the control of the government. During the Convention many differences of opinion were settled by compromises. In the hearts and minds of all was the will and the desire to make the young nation a free, democratic, orderly, and peace-loving community.

In his *Notes on Virginia*, THOMAS JEFFERSON, the great framer of the Declaration of Independence, and our President from 1801 to 1809, expresses his thoughts on democracy and on democratic institutions. As Jefferson had been born and brought up as the son of a pioneer in the frontier regions of Virginia, his ideas were colored by the give-and-take of pioneer conditions. He firmly believed that the members of a democracy should be farmers rather than traders or city-dwellers. He thought that the independence of action and thinking common to the farmers of western Virginia was the true basis of democracy. He thought that men who win lands from the wilderness to civilization ought to be able to shape their own government as they wished. He believed in simplicity and

economy in government, in general public education, and in the abolition of slavery. He was opposed to the established rights held by the powerful planters of the South and by the traders of the North.

JACKSON, our President from 1829 to 1837, made his contribution to democracy largely by developing Jefferson's ideas.



ANDREW JACKSON

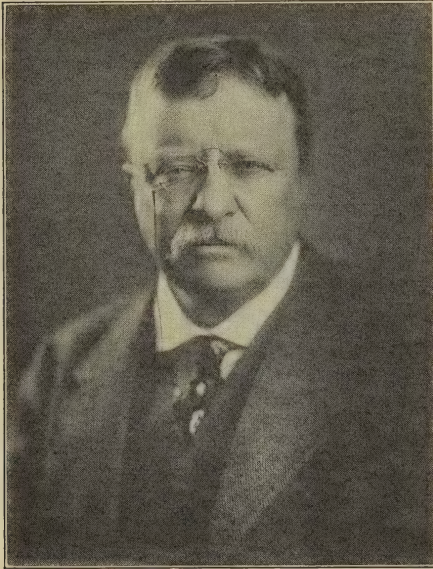
Like Jefferson, he was born in a backwoods settlement and grew up under pioneer conditions. His early life in Tennessee was among frontiersmen who believed in loyalty, justice, honesty, and the speedy punishment of offenders. Therefore Jackson believed in the enforcement of the spirit of the law rather than in the letter of the law. He hated hair-splitting of all kinds, especially when its object was to protect disloyalty, dishonesty, or injustice.

He wanted government to be direct and effective, free from the hampering influences of ancient forms and customs. He stood for the right of the individual citizen to develop his personality without the hindrance of old ideas. He was opposed to wealth with its aristocratic tendencies, recognizing a man's right to position merely because of what his father or grandfather had done, and to all restrictions on the right of a citizen to vote. During Jackson's two administrations, the last of the conservative states along the Atlantic seaboard extended suffrage to all citizens by taking away the property qualifications for voting.

Along with this idea of the right of all male citizens to vote went the idea that all had a right to hold political office. Jackson considered this privilege of holding a political office an opportunity for a citizen to exercise his right "to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." Changing the personnel of government officials was to him the means by which the successful politician could reward his friends and punish his enemies. Incidentally it gave training to many citizens in the actual conduct of government affairs. If the national government of that day had required highly trained experts for the successful conduct of its departments, Jackson's policies would have been very destructive, because efficiency in conducting the affairs of an office was no reason in Jackson's eyes for retaining a man in that office. Now one of the chief aims of our government is to obtain trained men for our diverse governmental undertakings, and to make their positions independent of political changes. As it was, Jackson's intense, liberty-loving nature broke down many of the distinctions between rich and poor, and between the East and the West, which had heretofore kept men apart.

LINCOLN represents the pioneers who entered the new West primarily for the sake of establishing homes, of setting up a permanent government, and of building up industries. They had the ability to plan together and to work together. Many of Lincoln's ideas of democracy could be expressed in terms of the home and the family. He thought that every pioneer ought to have the opportunity to earn a comfortable living for himself and his family; to work for recognition in his neighborhood and in his larger community life; to transmit to his children the chance for education, better industrial position, and greater recognition than he himself had been able to attain. Lincoln opposed slavery because it threatened to hinder the further growth of democratic pioneer life. Lincoln's great contribution was placing the nation before the people as a huge national household in which every citizen has a part to perform even as the mother, father, and children in the home.

ROOSEVELT developed Lincoln's ideas, and sought to guide the industrial life of the nation into channels of democracy. He worked unceasingly for the conservation of our natural resources, for he realized their importance as the basis of the national prosperity of a democratic people. He believed in a square deal for capital, for labor, and for the consuming public.



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A few paragraphs from one of his addresses express his ideas very forcibly: ¹

We grudge no man a fortune which represents his own power and sagacity exercised with entire regard to the welfare of his fellows. We have only praise for the business man whose business success comes as an incident to doing good work for his fellows. But we should so shape conditions that a fortune shall be obtained only in an honorable fashion, in such fashion that its gaining represents benefit to the community. . . .

We stand for the rights of property, but we stand even more for the rights of man. We will protect the rights of the wealthy man, but we maintain that he holds his wealth subject to the general right of the community to regulate its business use as the public welfare requires.

We also maintain that the nation and the several states have the right to regulate the terms and the conditions of labor, which is the

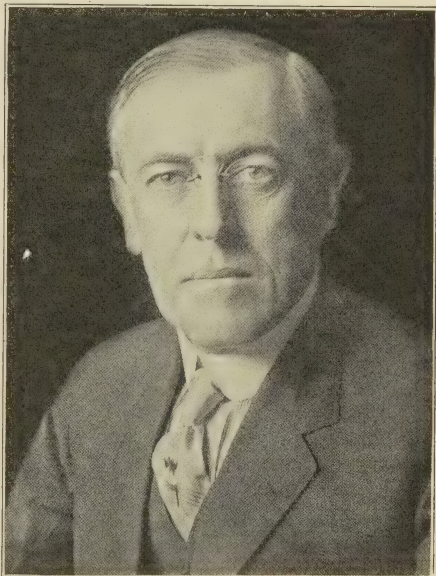
¹ Delivered before the Ohio Constitutional Convention at Columbus, Ohio, in February, 1912. Foerster and Pierson, *American Ideals*, p. 126. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

chief element of wealth, in the interest of the common good. It is our prime duty to shape the industrial and social forces so that they may tell for the material and moral upbuilding of the farmer and the wage-worker, just as they should do in the case of the business man. You, framers of this Constitution, be careful so to frame it that under it the people shall leave themselves free to do whatever is necessary in order to help the farmers of the state to get for their wives and children not only the benefits of better farming, but also those of better business methods and of better conditions of life on the farm.

Roosevelt's great contribution to our democracy was this doctrine of the square deal for all the contending forces in our industrial life. He put the emphasis on team work for the common good.

WILSON, our idealistic War-President, tried to make us see the world as a family of nations with kindred interests and purposes. Passages from his world-famous war message to Congress read before a joint session of the Senate and the House of Representatives on April 2, 1917, give us a key to his way of thinking: ¹

We are glad to fight for the ultimate peace of the world and for the liberation of its peoples, the German people included; for the rights of nations, great and small, and the privilege of men everywhere to



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WOODROW WILSON

¹ Foerster and Pierson, *American Ideals*, pp. 250-51. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

choose their way of life and of obedience. The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundation of political liberty.

We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights shall have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them.

Just because we fight without rancor and without selfish object, seeking nothing for ourselves but what we shall wish to share with all free peoples, we shall, I feel confident, conduct our operations as belligerents without passion and ourselves observe the principles of right and fair play we profess to be fighting for.

1. If Jefferson were alive to-day, do you think he would still believe that city and industrial life undermine democratic ideals? Why?
 2. Why did many of the framers of our national Constitution believe in a property qualification for voting? Would such a qualification be the cause of greater or less injustice now than then? Why?
 3. Since Washington's time most of our Presidents have talked against vested interests and established rights. What do these terms mean to you? Are there any vested interests in your school? In your neighborhood? In your town or city? If so, what are they? How do they affect you?
- 5. The free lands of the West have helped to make our nation democratic.**

Ever since the founding of our nation there have been vast stretches of wilderness which have invited settlement because of their fertility. The West has made its appeal not only to men in the East who have felt oppressed by labor conditions or by the social inequalities of long-settled communities, but also to men in distant lands. The Bohemian peasant in his white-washed cottage left the village of his ancestors with all its associations that he might have some share in the natural advantages of our country. From the highlands of Scotland, the

fjords of Norway, the crowded country-side of Belgium, the sunny towns of southern Italy, the populous districts of Germany, Russia, Austria, and Turkey, men have come to work for new homes in a new, free, rich country. The fertile Mississippi Valley and the wide prairies demanded manly exertion on farms and ranches. In return they gave a chance for success. The vacant lands were an opportunity for a new order, an opportunity for men to destroy the ancient bonds that had kept them down, to carve out a future in proportion to their ability, and to win a larger life than they had ever known before.

The shortage of labor in the West made it necessary for all men to work in the shops, stores, and fields. This prevented the formation of social classes and stimulated the development of democratic institutions, for nobody had time for the observance of aristocratic privileges. Because the thought and labor of every pioneer were needed for the great work of bringing the wilderness under the control of civilization, the same primitive conditions which built up the New England town meeting in Massachusetts were at work throughout the West. There was this difference: the free lands were spread over areas too vast for the exact copying of the democratic institutions which had already developed in the East. In the West men learned to deal with great problems over great areas. Only the famous inventions like the railroad, the telegraph, and the telephone, made it easier for democracy to develop in the West, for without them the country would probably have split into distinct sections with independent governments. With them our nation has expanded from the Atlantic to the Pacific, the greatest achievement of modern times.

1. Why do some people think that the future of our nation will be less democratic than its past? Do you agree? Why?
2. Do autocratic conditions in the industrial world affect conditions in the political world, that is, can a man employed by an autocratic factory all the working days of the year be democratic in his political ideas? Why, or why not?

3. Did many immigrants who came to the United States from 1800 to 1880 realize their ambitions? Prove your answer by family histories of your friends. Is the chance for realizing ambitions greater or less now? Why?

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Wilson, *The New Freedom*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)
 Chap. v — "The Parliament of the People."
 Chap. xii — "The Liberation of the People's Vital Energies."
 The book is a collection of Mr. Wilson's campaign speeches made in 1912.
2. Foerster and Pierson, *American Ideals*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 a. "Liberty Speech," Patrick Henry, pp. 3-6.
 b. "Contributions of the West to American Democracy," F. J. Turner, pp. 72-97.
 c. "War for Democracy and Peace," Wilson, pp. 242-55.
 d. "A Charter for Democracy," Roosevelt, pp. 114-32.
 The aim of the book is to bring together famous expressions of American ideals. Speeches and magazine articles formerly difficult to find are put into convenient form. Every student should read several of these selections.
3. Beard, *Readings in American Government and Politics*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. 1 — "Colonial Origins of American Democracy."
4. James, *Local Government in the United States*. (Appleton.)
 Chap. 11 — "Origin and Development of Local Government in the United States."
 The first part of this chapter gives a detailed account of the three forms of local government in the colonies.
5. Gore, *The Boyhood of Abraham Lincoln*. (Bobbs-Merrill Co.)
 This book of tales of Lincoln's boyhood takes the reader into the homes of the Kentucky pioneers as they were a century ago. Lincoln's early home life makes clear many of his later ideals.
6. Bok, *A Dutch Boy Fifty Years After*. (Scribner's.)
 The book is a story of the life of Edward Bok, a Dutch immigrant whose ability and determination to succeed won him position and fame. It is a good study in American democracy.
7. Thayer, *George Washington*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 Chap. 11 — "The Life of a Planter."
8. Scudder, *George Washington*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 Chap. 1 — "Old Virginia."
 Chap. 11 — "A Virginia Plantation."
 Chap. 111 — "The Boyhood of Washington."
 Chap. 1V — "School Days."
 These four chapters give us a good picture of conditions in Virginia during the period preceding the War for Independence.
9. Hubbard, *Little Journeys to the Homes of American Statesmen*. (The Roycrofters.)
 Vol. 11 — pp. 5-30, "Thomas Jefferson."
 Vol. 11 — pp. 123-49, "Abraham Lincoln."

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Cooley, *Human Nature and the Social Order*. (Scribner's.)
2. Tufts, *The Real Business of Living*. (Holt.)
Chap. xxxvii — "Democracy as Self-Government."
Chap. xl — "Progress and Task of Democracy."
3. Macy, *Socialism in America*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)
Chap. ii — "The Origin of Socialism."
Chap. vi — "The Program of the Socialist Party."
4. Churchill, *A Traveller in War-Time*. (Macmillan.)

The second section of this book is an essay on the "American Contribution and the Democratic Idea."

CHAPTER XX

CITIZENSHIP IN OUR DEMOCRACY

IN the preceding chapter you have been studying the changing meaning of the word "democracy." You have seen that new aspects become apparent to every generation. Because of the constant changes in our industrial and social organization, it is necessary for us to interpret democracy in new ways, for our citizens have new responsibilities and new duties to perform. In this chapter we shall find out who are the citizens in our democracy, what rights and privileges our government grants to its citizens, and what duties citizenship requires.

Problems for you to investigate

OUR NEIGHBORS FROM OTHER LANDS

I.

- A. From the United States Census of 1920 find out the following facts for your state:
 1. The number of foreign-born residents.
 2. The countries from which they came.
 3. The counties in which they reside.
- B. On a small outline map of your state showing counties indicate the counties whose population is less than one per cent foreign-born; from one to five per cent; from five to ten per cent; over ten per cent. (Devise a color scheme so that all maps made by the members of the class will look alike.) File this map in your notebook.

II.

- A. Get or make a large map of your school district, showing streets, roads, etc. Let each member of your class be responsible for exploring the section nearest his home. Find out:
 1. Nationalities represented in your neighborhood (Your parents will probably be able to help you. Also tactful conversations with your neighbors and their friends will help.)

2. Reasons why these people came to America. Have they realized their ambitions? If not, can you see why? If so, explain their success. (Assistance from parents and neighbors will help you answer these questions.)

B. Devise a color scheme to show areas in which the different nationalities reside.

III.

A. Do the different nationalities in your community do different kinds of work? If so, find out reasons.

B. Is your community trying to Americanize recent arrivals? If so, appoint a committee to write an invitation to some citizen interested in this work to speak to your class. Take careful notes and file them in your notebook.

C. How many aliens are in special citizenship classes in your night schools preparing for naturalization? Appoint a committee of your class to visit a naturalization class and to report their impressions to you.

D. Appoint a committee to get reports of the Bureau of Housing and Immigration at your state capitol. Find out what your state is doing for immigrants.

1. Who are American citizens?

The Constitution of the United States tells us that all persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to our laws are citizens of the United States and of the state in which they reside. Thus every child born in the United States and subject to our laws is an American citizen, no matter whether his parents are citizens or not. The American-born children of ambassadors from foreign lands are not subject to our laws, but to the laws of their parents' country, and are therefore not citizens of the United States. Likewise, the foreign-born children of our ambassadors are not citizens of their native land, but of our country.

People not born subject to our laws may become citizens by naturalization. In order to become a citizen, a foreigner must live in our country for a period of five consecutive years. He

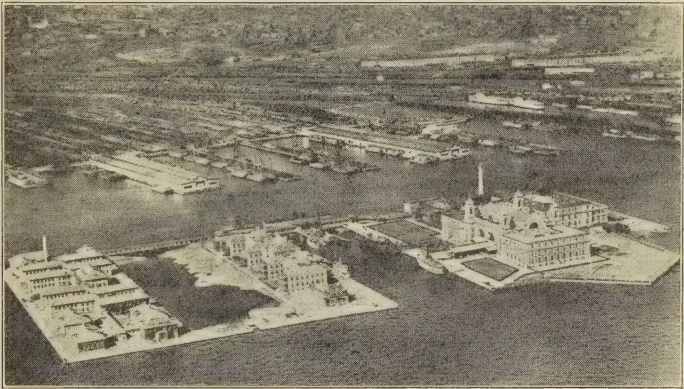
must also be able to read and write, must be of good character, must know the general principles underlying our political institutions, and must not be an anarchist. The alien who fulfills these requirements appears in a county court, makes a formal declaration of his desire to become an American citizen, and obtains his "first papers." Two years later he is eligible to take out his "final papers." On that occasion he again appears in the county court, either presents a certificate showing his completion of a prescribed course of study in a public school, or passes an examination, and then takes the oath of allegiance to our flag. When a man is naturalized, his wife and all his children under twenty-one years of age also become citizens. Since women over twenty-one years of age now have the right to vote in all our elections, a woman may take out citizenship papers independent of her husband.

1. What is the population of your state according to the United States Census of 1920? How many foreign-born people of voting age are there? How many are naturalized? How many have taken out their first papers? How many aliens are there? (Use *World Almanac* or United States Census Report to obtain these figures.)
2. Some people think that only those aliens should be admitted to our country who signify their intention of becoming citizens as soon as the law allows. What do you think of this idea? Why?

2. All American citizens are either the descendants of immigrants or they are naturalized immigrants.

The Indians are the only original Americans, while all the rest of us are immigrants or the descendants of immigrants. Some of us have ancestors who, many years ago, came to this country in the Mayflower, or with John Smith, or with Lord Baltimore, or with William Penn, or with other early settlers. Such Americans are proud of their long line of American ancestors. In nearly every community there are a few residents who claim descent from the Pilgrim fathers. Other

equally loyal Americans are the descendants of the Irish who left their native land during the potato famine in 1846. So many Irish immigrants had come to our shores by 1850 that their number exceeded that of any other nationality. Thousands of Americans in every state in the Union trace their descent from this early Irish stock. Germans came in great numbers from 1850 to 1890. Many of the men who were officers trained in the German army helped to drill Union



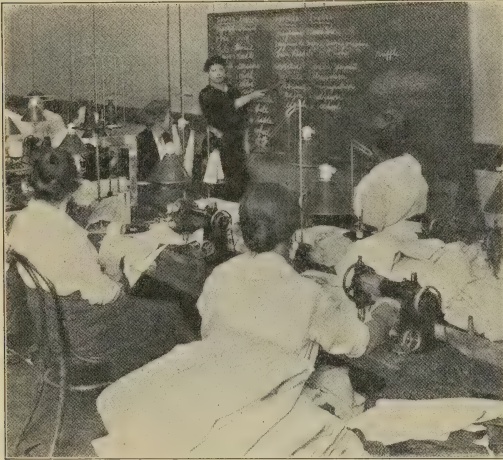
AEROPLANE VIEW OF ELLIS ISLAND

This is the portal through which millions of immigrants from Europe and the Near East have entered our country. (*Copyright, Underwood & Underwood.*)

soldiers during our Civil War. They gladly accepted the responsibility of helping to preserve the freedom for which they had come to our country. All these immigrants resembled closely the people already here, for many of them came from the same countries as did our ancestors only a few generations earlier. They came to America to escape unbearable conditions in Europe, adopted the customs and institutions of the United States, and became American citizens as soon as the law permitted.

In recent years many of our immigrants have come from southern and eastern Europe, from countries long oppressed by despotic autocrats. As they have had no experience with

democratic government, they do not readily understand the freedom of American life. Consequently, they have great difficulty in adopting our customs and in learning our language. So great is the yearning of many of these recent arrivals for the old familiar places of their homeland that they live in utmost poverty in order to save money for the return voyage; but the majority remain with us. A large proportion



POWER SEWING-MACHINE CLASS IN LOS ANGELES

Classes like this one are conducted through the coöperation of the Board of Education, the Chamber of Commerce, and the manufacturers of the city. These Mexican girls are learning English and American customs as well as the use of the power sewing machine. (*Courtesy of Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce.*)

of the men have neither trade nor professional training and must of necessity work at the unskilled tasks of the common laborer, digging the sewers in our streets, shoveling coal in our steel mills, working long hours and accepting less pay than Americans would consider. Often we are likely to think of them as undesirable, but we

forget that each one of these uncouth laborers has had the courage to break away from the old ties of his native land, to come to a strange country, and to live among strange people who speak a strange language. They know, what we often forget, that progress and success are founded upon willingness to work hard on whatever task is at hand. It was courage and understanding of this kind that characterized the first settlers of our pioneer communities. By seeking to understand the ideals and aspirations of these recent immigrants we may

be able to assist them to value the freedom which America offers, and in turn we may receive many valuable lessons from them.

1. How many of the pupils in your class were born in foreign lands? How many of your parents were immigrants? Ask them why they came to our country.
2. How many members of your class were born in the county in which you now live? From what places in America did other members of your class come? Make a list on the blackboard.
3. What is the difference between migration from one state to another in our country and migration from a foreign land to the United States?

3. An American citizen expects his government to grant him certain rights and privileges.

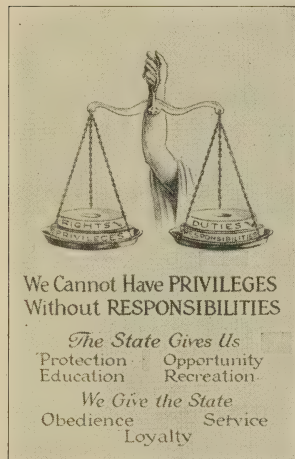
When you were studying the protection of life and property in your community you learned that you gained freedom by coöperating with your neighbors. Coöperation through government gives to each of us all the liberty we can enjoy without interfering with the rights of our neighbors. We have the right to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness" so long as our actions are not detrimental to the "life, liberty, and happiness" of the other members of our community. In order that all may know what the limits are within which each citizen may act as he desires, and in order that the acts of the careless may be restrained, our representatives make laws, our courts interpret them, and our executives supervise their enforcement. Our government, therefore, gives us liberty under law. As the citizens of a democratic republic, we expect our government to safeguard our liberty.

For this reason our national government maintains our army and navy whose prime purpose is to protect our citizens and our possessions from attacks of foreign enemies. Occasionally our national army is used to quell disorders and riots within our own boundaries, but no American soldier enjoys riot duty, for he feels that liberty-loving Americans worthy

of their country should conduct themselves in a law-abiding manner, depending upon just laws to redress their grievances. This feeling is an expression of the principle that there can be no real liberty without scrupulous observance of law. The citizens who take the law into their own hands are breaking down the foundations of American liberty. They are thinking of themselves as persons superior to law. In a democracy all are

equal before the law, but none are superior to it. Occasionally the strong arm of our national military organization impresses this fundamental principle upon unruly members of our community.

Our government also protects the people against the infrequent tyranny of its officials when occasion arises. The exact obligations of the national government are set forth in the first ten amendments to our national Constitution. Our national government guarantees us freedom of speech, of the press, and of religious worship, security of property, and trial by jury. It prohibits quar-



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Association

tering soldiers in the homes of citizens without their consent, imposing cruel and unusual punishments, searching private property without warrants issued by courts of law, and holding prisoners without trial. Since these guarantees of civil liberty are repeated in the constitutions of most states all citizens have a double protection against tyrannical action of government officials.

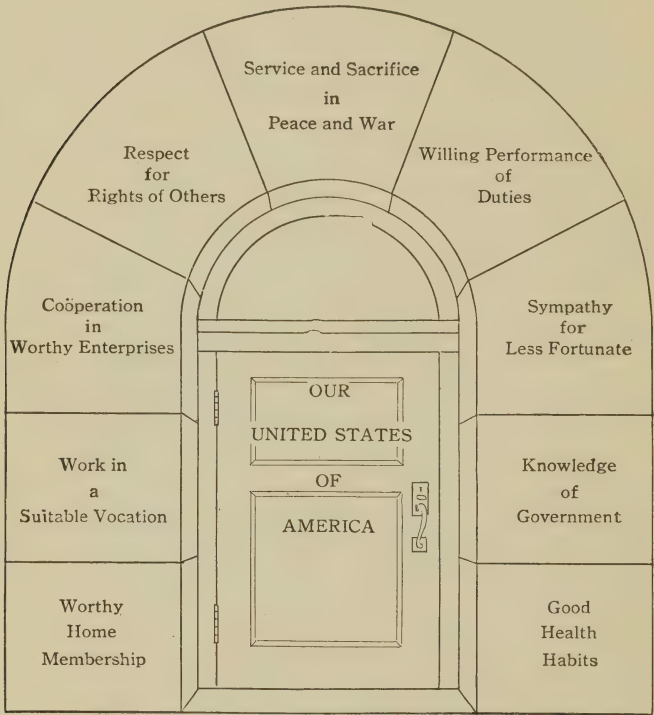
Both our state and national governments guarantee the right of free elections. Voting in these elections is reserved for our citizens who have reached the age of twenty-one. It is the greatest privilege granted by our government because it gives the citizens of voting age control over the officials who make and carry out our laws.

1. Why do we have secret ballots at elections?
2. Look up the first ten amendments to our national Constitution. Make a detailed list of the rights guaranteed the citizens of the United States. Which of these rights are political? Which ones are civil?
3. Using the constitution of your state, make a detailed list of the rights guaranteed to you by your state. Compare this list with the one made from the national Constitution.
4. **Our government expects its citizens to develop certain habits.**

Our study of health showed us the relationship between vigorous health and good citizenship. Also our study of thrift and conservation showed us that good citizens provide for their future and assist our government to conserve our national resources for future generations of citizens. In our study of the institutions and life of our own neighborhood we have seen the need for a spirit of tolerance for beliefs and ideals different from our own. Also, we have seen that our government guarantees us religious liberty, freedom of speech, and freedom of the press. In turn, it expects every citizen to live in peace and harmony with neighbors of different religious, social, and political ideals. These three habits of everyday life are possessed by all good citizens: working for personal and public health; providing for future needs; and practicing the spirit of tolerance toward others in our community. Our government expects every citizen, no matter how young, to develop these personal habits in order that national prosperity and the feeling of good-will may be increased.

Other habits of the good citizen even more directly connected with our government are the habits of obedience to law and of respect for law. Most of us have these habits inculcated into our nature in early youth. As small children we learn to obey our fathers and mothers and to respect their desires and rulings. Sometimes it is necessary for parents to apply force in order to restrain an unruly child. In the ideal family such force is rarely necessary, because habits of self-restraint and

of respect for authority preserve peace and augment good-will. In his dealings with members of his community the good citizen thinks of himself as a member of a large family, and he



Will you be able to enter?

THE DOOR TO GOOD CITIZENSHIP

respects authority and obeys laws because he believes in authority and law as the guardians of liberty. Thus his childhood training in his family circle prepares him to meet the expectations of his government.

1. Writers on government tell us that every right granted by the government to a citizen corresponds to some duty which the

government expects the citizen to perform. Do you agree? Why, or why not?

2. Take the detailed list of rights granted by our national Constitution which you made at the end of section 3. For how many of these rights are there corresponding duties? Make parallel lists.

5. Good citizens take an active part in the election of public officials.

When we were outlining the rights of American citizens we learned that voting for candidates for public office is a right and a privilege of the highest order. It is also a duty. But before voting it is necessary to make a thorough investigation of the qualifications of candidates. A citizen who is competent to fill public office must have certain well-defined qualities. For example, a candidate for state treasurer ought to have financial standing in his community. In his private affairs he ought to have shown sober judgment and unquestioned honesty. He ought to have sound ideas on the administration of public business, and he ought to be able to express his ideas forcefully. Furthermore, a candidate for public office ought not to be the intimate associate of men in corrupt political machines, for a public official ought to be free to serve his government to the best of his ability for the good of all. If the candidate has held office before, good citizens will investigate his record by making a careful review of the reports of the good government organizations. After a careful study of the qualifications required in a particular position, the good citizen, after making a thorough investigation, will vote for the man best fitted for the position.

1. Make a list of the duties of citizens in the election of public officials. Which duty do you consider most important? Why? Which duty do you consider least important? Why?
2. Make a list of the qualifications required of a good captain of an athletic team. Make another list of the qualifications required of a good class president. Compare the two lists. Account for the similarities and for the differences.

3. Compare the lists made above with the qualifications of the mayor of your city; the sheriff of your county; or the judge in one of your courts.

6. Good citizens have certain responsibilities in lawmaking and in some states in recall elections.

Ever since the colonies became states and turned their colonial charters into state constitutions, American citizens have had responsibilities in the making of law. For example, our state constitutions are submitted to the people for approval, and any amendment to a state constitution passed by the legislature requires the assent of the voters. In cities and counties propositions to borrow money by the sale of bonds must be ratified by the direct vote of the people. Outlying districts are annexed to cities by the direct vote of the people of the districts. Propositions to organize school districts, sanitary districts, and irrigation districts must be submitted to the voters. Power of all these kinds has been in the possession of American citizens for generations.

Recently the initiative and referendum, adopted by some states, have given the citizens added responsibilities. The initiative is the power to propose laws by petition. In general, it works as follows: any law, ordinance, amendment to the state constitution, or change in a city or county charter may be proposed. Interested citizens circulate among their neighbors a petition containing a full statement of the proposition. All registered voters are eligible to sign the petition. If the measure affects the whole state, and the interested citizens can obtain signatures equal to a certain per cent of the votes cast in the last election for governor, then a special election must be held. If the interested citizens obtain only a lower, but specified, per cent the proposition is placed on the ballot at the next regular election. If a majority vote in favor of the measure it becomes a law. Any number of initiative propositions may be submitted to the voters in the same election.

The referendum is the power possessed by the people to vote directly on propositions that have already been made law.

For example, a law passed by a state legislature usually does not become effective until a set date following its passage. Before this date, a petition protesting against the law may be circulated. If it is signed by a certain per cent of the voters, the matter must be submitted at the next general election. If the law is approved by the voters, it goes into effect at once. Otherwise, it is repealed.

A third power usually associated with the initiative and referendum is the recall. It is the power to remove an elective officer who has been in office at least six months. If an official is incompetent, fails to perform his duty, or if the voters disapprove of his policies, a recall may be instituted by circulating petitions. If the recall of a county official is desired, for example, the signatures of a specified per cent of the number of voters at the last county election must be obtained. If this is done the proposition to recall the official is submitted to the voters usually in a special election, at which the voter not only votes "yes" or "no" on the recall, but also votes for a candidate to fill the vacancy should the recall be successful. If the majority votes "no" on the recall, the official retains his place, otherwise, the candidate receiving the highest number of votes is elected to fill the position.

In all these activities it is the duty of all citizens to seek as full and accurate information as possible, to sign worthy petitions, and to go to the polls and vote at all elections.

1. Before general elections in some states a booklet containing initiative and referendum measures and the arguments respecting them is sent to every registered voter. Ask your librarian if she has any booklets of this kind. Why does a state government spend money in this way?
2. What initiative measures have been submitted in your community recently?
3. What referendum measures have been submitted recently? Were you in favor of each of them? Why, or why not?
4. Has any public official in your community been recalled? If so, find out the reasons.

THE GOOD CITIZEN

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Reed, *Loyal Citizenship*. (World Book Co.)
 Chap. VIII — "The Privileges of Citizenship."
 Chap. IX — "The Duties of Citizenship."
 Chap. XIII — "Estimating Candidates."
 Chap. XIV — "The Citizen as Lawmaker."
 These chapters are very brief simple discussions of the subjects listed in the titles.
2. Guitteau, *Preparing for Citizenship*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 Chap. II — "Government and the Citizen."
3. Dunn, *Community Civics for City Schools*. (Heath.)
 Chap. IV — "Why We Have Government."
 Chap. V — "What is Citizenship?"
4. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
 Lesson C-18 — "Coöperation through Law."
5. Bureau of Naturalization, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.
 Publications on naturalization.
 These publications may be obtained through your librarian or directly from the Bureau. Some of them contain interesting information, copies of forms used in courts, etc.
6. Steiner, *From Alien to Citizen*. (Revell.)
 This book is the autobiography of a noteworthy American, full of realistic pictures of the trials of immigrants to our country.
7. Hagedorn, *You Are the Hope of the World*. (Macmillan.)
 It is a vivid appeal to the youth of America to think about the rights and duties of young Americans.
8. Riis, *The Making of an American*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. I — "The Meeting on the Long Bridge."
 Chap. II — "I Land in New York."
 Chap. XVI — "The American Made."
9. Antin, *The Promised Land*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 This book is one of the most famous of the autobiographies of foreign-born Americans.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Towne, *Social Problems*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. III — "Immigration."
 This chapter gives a brief statement of tendencies in the new and the old immigrations.
2. Munro and Ozanne, *Social Civics*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. V — "The Citizen: His Rights and Duties."
3. Beard, *American Citizenship*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. I — "The Nature of Modern Government."
4. General election laws of your state.
 This report is issued by the secretary of state at the state capital and

may be obtained through his office. No teacher should attempt to teach this chapter without careful study of the sections related to the work under discussion.

5. Bogardus, *Essentials of Americanization*. (University of Southern California Press.)
6. Webster, *Americanization and Citizenship*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
7. Ellwood, *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*. (American Book Co.)
Chap. ix — "The Immigration Problem."

CHAPTER XXI

POLITICAL PARTIES

IN the last two chapters we have been studying the ever-changing ideals of our democratic government and the increasing number of rights and duties of citizenship. Our aim in this chapter is to find out what are the tasks and organization of a political party in our democracy and what privileges and obligations accrue to the good citizen from activity in a political party.

Problems for you to investigate

THE POLITICAL ORGANIZATION OF OUR COMMUNITY

- I. Get a copy of a good almanac, like the *World Almanac*, published by the Press Publishing Company, New York, or the *Daily News Almanac*, published by the Daily News Publishing Company, Chicago, Illinois.
 1. Turn to the section which gives election returns by states.
 - a. Make a list of the presidential elections in which your state has been Republican. In which it has been Democratic.
 - b. Make a list of the governors who have been elected on the Democratic ticket. On the Republican ticket.
 - c. From the above lists classify your state politically.
 - d. Make similar lists showing the way in which your county has voted in presidential and gubernatorial elections. If the preferences of your county are frequently different from those of your state, there is probably some local reason. If so, what is it?
 2. Turn to the section which gives the membership of the national committees and the names of the state chairmen.
 - a. Who is the Republican National Committeeman from your state? Do you know him? Does he occupy any political office now? Do you know why he was chosen to represent your state?

- b. Find out the same things about the Democratic National Committeeman.
 - c. Who is the chairman of the Republican committee in your state? Where does he live? What work is the state committee doing now? Who represents your community on the state committee?
 - d. Get the same information about the Democratic committee in your state.
 - e. Through a committee of your class invite one of the members of your state or county committee to tell your class about its work.
- II. Is there a political club in your community? Do your neighbors or friends belong to it? Do they ever attend its meetings? What work is the club doing? If possible arrange for a committee of your class to attend a meeting and have it report.
- III. Do the newspapers in your community have definite party leanings? Prove your answer by clippings which discuss the work of the city, county, state, or national officials, elections, or campaigns.

I. The membership of a political party is composed of those citizens who wish to influence the action of the government.

Because of the changing nature of our life together, many questions arise concerning the kinds of service which the government ought to perform, and the means by which government activities can best be conducted. Differences of opinion are constantly brought to the attention of the people through our daily newspapers, our magazines, and our community organizations. When any large number of citizens believe that a question is of vital importance to the life of our nation, they organize themselves into a political party, and the question becomes a political issue. For example, our statesmen differ in their ideas about America's participation in European difficulties. One group believes that we ought to be willing to make any sacrifice that will enable us to assist in restoring normal conditions in European countries. Another group believes that we should follow the advice of Washington and keep American affairs separated from those

of Europe as completely as possible. A good citizen will join the political party which favors the side in which he believes. In this way he is enabled to cooperate with other like-minded citizens in his efforts to make his ideas influence or control the action of our government.

1. Are there political parties in your school? If so, by what issues are their members bound together? If not, account for their absence.
2. Are any of your relatives or friends enthusiastic supporters of any political party? If so, try to find out their reasons.

2. The present Democratic Party was founded by Jefferson.

During Washington's second administration the serious differences of opinion between the followers of Jefferson and the followers of Adams and Hamilton became very evident. Both parties were in favor of republican government; that is, a government run by the representatives of the people. Neither party wanted to see a monarchy established. But Jefferson's followers had more faith in the masses of the people and in leaving the people to work out their own problems as they saw fit. Jefferson's opponents, the Federalists, believed in a strong centralized government. The chief supporters of the Federalists were in the New England and Middle Atlantic states. They represented the commercial and shipping interests which naturally desired a strong central government capable of making and enforcing treaties with other countries, of reforming the national currency, and of establishing a national banking system.

The strength of Jefferson's party lay in the small farmers and in the individualistic Southerners, who claimed to be the apostles of liberty. Their success in defeating the Federalists was due largely to Jefferson's skill in organizing feeling and in shaping public opinion among his party adherents. He was one of the first political leaders to realize that numbers without organization are powerless, but that with organization they are all powerful. The longer Jefferson's party was in

control of the national government, the more it came to see the value of a strong central government. For example, it gradually discovered the value of the central authority in questions relating to banking, currency, communication, purchases of land, etc. The people as a whole learned to value their new national institutions. The old issue between the Federalists and Jeffersonians faded into the background.

As time passed new issues arose. About 1830, the personal hostility which developed between Henry Clay and Andrew Jackson because of the wide differences in their beliefs and methods produced a new and bitter party feeling. The Democrats under Jackson carried on the principles of Jefferson. They advocated the rights of the states to decide questions for themselves. They did not want any interference from the central government. Their chief support was from the South and from the farming classes, the same people whose fathers had supported Jefferson. These principles enabled the South to defend slavery and to oppose a tariff for the protection of the nation's manufacturing interests. Their opponents, the Whigs under Henry Clay, recognized the need for developing our manufacturing interests. They advocated a high tariff, the building of a strong national army and navy, and the use of public funds for building roads, assisting railroad development, and improving canals. Their chief support came from the industrial and manufacturing classes of New England and the Middle States, the same elements which had supported the Federalists of Washington's day. The political history of our country to 1860 is largely the story of the struggle of these parties to solve the slavery question by compromises. Neither party had any definite plan to offer. Both were afraid to face the issue squarely.

1. Soon after Jefferson was inaugurated he started negotiations for the purchase of Louisiana from France. Was this act in accordance with his party principles? Explain why or why not. If not, why did he arrange for the purchase?
2. What is a tariff? Why were Jeffersonian Democrats opposed to a tariff? Why did the New England states favor a tariff?

3. The present Republican Party was first led to victory by Lincoln.

While the Democrats in the North were faltering and hesitating to break with their party members in the South, and while the Whigs of the two sections were trying to compromise,



Courtesy of Chicago Boosters' Publicity Club

STATUE OF LINCOLN IN LINCOLN PARK, CHICAGO

the new Republican Party nominated Lincoln for President. It stood for the right of Congress to restrict the extension of slavery. All over the nation people repeated Lincoln's quotation, "A house divided against itself cannot stand," and they wondered who this backwoods orator was who had the courage to express his beliefs in such forceful language. The leaders of the two old parties, the Democratic and the Whig, did not see that, in trying to keep their parties united, they were losing hold on those voters who cared for the principles involved in politics. Lincoln's nomination by the new party gave dissatisfied voters their chance, and, in 1860, Lincoln was elected President of the United States.

During his first term he was called upon to plan and to fight in defense of the Union as no man had ever been called upon before. Because of the Civil War the powers of the federal

government expanded until they affected the daily routine of people's lives in many new ways; for example, men were taken from their homes to fill the vacancies in the Union army; people paid direct taxes to the federal government; and in numberless ways all the North sacrificed and worked that the Union might be preserved.

1. Why is the federal government forced to extend its powers in time of war? Did President Wilson permit any extensions of the federal powers during the World War? If so, what were they? Was he a good Democrat if he allowed such extensions to take place? Why, or why not?
 2. Is a Democratic President true to the principles of his party when he helps to increase the power of the federal government? Give reasons for your answer.
- 4. New political parties are organized about new ideas which the old parties will not put into their platforms.**

Because new principles may lose votes as well as gain them, an old political party is frequently reluctant to adopt new ideas and to incorporate them in the principles which make up its platform. Unless it feels that there is a widespread opinion in favor of the change, it is likely to ignore the movement for it.

When any appreciable number of voters become discontented with the policies advocated by a party, there are several methods by which they can give expression to their ideas in political organizations. They may secure the election of a majority of the delegates to their party convention; but this is difficult because it usually involves a tremendous amount of energy and money to carry on a successful campaign. In 1896, William Jennings Bryan performed the unusual feat of capturing the Democratic convention, and of inducing it to write into its platform many of the ideas then expressed by the Populists. Likewise, the progressive Democrats in 1912, working against powerful opposition, secured Wilson's nomination and a progressive platform.

A second course is for the men with the new ideas to declare

themselves a new party. The present Republican Party was founded when open-minded voters, regardless of their previous party affiliations, who were opposed to the extension of slavery, could get no definite promise that either of the old parties would support their views. Also, the Populist Party of the eighties and the nineties was founded as a protest against the failure of the two great parties to express themselves on the issues facing the agricultural sections of the Mississippi Valley. In its convention of 1892 it adopted a platform declaring for government ownership of railroads, telegraph lines, and telephone lines, for a graduated income tax, and for postal savings banks. In its first national campaign in which it supported James B. Weaver for President, it polled over a million votes. Even if it was unable to win in the election, its principles were adopted in part by the old parties, and, as a result, postal savings banks and income tax are now accepted parts of our national life.

A third course open to men dissatisfied with the old parties is to organize their followers in such a way that they will vote for the candidate who seems most favorable to their idea, no matter what his party is. Much work along this line was done in the cause of prohibition by the Anti-Saloon League. The League rarely named a candidate of its own, but recommended to the voters either the Republican or the Democratic candidate who stood for prohibition. It was work of this kind rather than the election of Prohibition candidates from the Prohibition Party that secured the adoption of the Eighteenth Amendment by Congress and by the state legislatures.

1. If you were a political leader and very much in favor of some new policy for managing the government, which one of these three methods would you use? Why?
2. Is the Prohibition Party still in existence? If not, why not? If so, what is it doing now that we have the Eighteenth Amendment on our statute books?
3. What do you mean when you say that a man has progressive ideas? What are reactionary ideas?

5. Political parties nominate some candidates for public office through the convention system.

Not many years ago all the nominations for all the elective officials were placed on the ballot by party conventions. For example, if the citizens were to choose an alderman at an approaching election, the Democratic leaders selected by interested Democrats in all the precincts in the ward met in caucus and made their choice. The Republicans, Prohibition-



CIVIC AUDITORIUM IN SAN FRANCISCO

The Democratic National Convention of 1920 was held in this building. The Convention nominated Governor Cox, of Ohio, for President and Franklin Roosevelt, of Massachusetts, for Vice-President. (*Courtesy of San Francisco Chamber of Commerce.*)

ists, Socialists, and other political groups also put forward their candidates. On election day the ordinary citizen voted for the party nominee of his choice. The same conditions prevailed in all elections: city conventions nominated candidates for city offices, county conventions for county offices, and the state conventions for state offices. Under this system the choice of candidates fell into the hands of partisan cliques largely because the ordinary citizen was too busy to keep in touch with the caucuses of his party. An election was, therefore, a choice between men who held the confidence of the

party chiefs assembled in caucus. This method of nomination still determines what names shall appear on the ballots in local elections in several states. It is also the system by which we nominate our candidates for President and Vice-President, our two highest officials.

1. What is a caucus? (Look up this word in your dictionary.)
 2. When and where was the last national Democratic convention held? The last Republican convention? Who were nominated?
 3. Besides nominating candidates a national convention draws up a platform. What is a platform? (Look up this word in your dictionary.)
 4. Look up files of your local newspapers for the periods covering the last national conventions and get digests of the Democratic and Republican platforms. Compare them.
- 6. In many states the convention system is being replaced by the direct primaries in which candidates are nominated by the people.**

The steps necessary to secure a party's nomination for a state office under the direct primary system in general are as follows:

1. A citizen is asked by his friends to become the Republican candidate for a state office — the state treasurer, for example — and he gives his consent.
2. His friends circulate petitions among their Republican acquaintances until they have obtained the number of signatures required by law.
3. Each petition is filed with the clerk of the town, city, or county in which the signatures were obtained. The clerk rejects all signatures of persons not registered as Republican voters.
4. A set time before the date for the primary election the local clerks send the nominating petitions to the secretary of state at the state capital.
5. Ballots are then prepared containing the names of other

Republican candidates for state treasurer, and for the other state and local offices for which nominations are to be made in the approaching primary.

6. Meanwhile, the candidate and his friends carry on a publicity campaign among their Republican neighbors in order to secure their votes.
7. On election day registered Republican voters secure Republican ballots and mark them as they think best.
8. If the candidate secures a plurality of the votes cast for the Republican nomination for state treasurer, his name will appear on the ballot to be used in the regular election.

The offices for which nominations are made by the direct primary in most states are those of presidential elector, United States senator, representative in Congress, and all elective state officials except judges.

1. In what ways is the nomination of a candidate by the direct primary more democratic than a nomination by a state convention?
2. How are nominations for student officers in your school made? Compare with the direct primary system.
3. Who pays the cost of a candidate's campaign in the primary election? Of the party nominees in the general election?

7. Activity in the primary illustrates certain duties of good citizens.

Some of the important duties of American citizens are centered in the process of getting a name on the ballot in a primary election. First, good citizens competent to fill public offices are willing to become candidates, even if their candidacy involves considerable time and money. However, before good citizens permit themselves to become candidates for public office, they are sure of their competency. By making themselves deserving of public office and by becoming candidates, they make it possible for the community to have intelligent and honest officials. The friends who work for a

well-qualified man's victory in a primary election are also fulfilling the duties of good citizens, for they persuade him to enter the race. By their enthusiasm they inspire interest in the primary in their less thoughtful neighbors. They themselves vote for him and also urge other citizens to cast their ballots for him. Then all the citizens in the community realize that an excellent way to get good men into office is to request them to become candidates in the primary and then to support them.

1. Make a list of the civic duties mentioned in this paragraph.
2. Do you think a citizen ought to support all the candidates chosen in his party's primary when the regular election comes? Why, or why not?

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Hart, *Actual Government under American Conditions*. (Longmans, Green.)
Chap. v — "The Party and the Machine."
This chapter gives a good account of the work and the danger of a political machine.
2. Beard, *Readings in American Government and Politics*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. VII:
Section 52 — "The Municipal Boss."
Section 53 — "The Parts of a State Political Machine."
Section 54 — "The Political Party Included in the Legal Framework of Government."

These three sections give in detail the possibilities of political party organizations.

3. Bolton and Adams, *Story of California*. (Allyn & Bacon.)
Chap. XVII — "New Political Life."
4. *Saturday Evening Post*, November 13, 1920. W. G. Shepherd, "Declare Yourself In."
5. *Saturday Evening Post*, January 22, 1921. House, "Why I am a Stand-patter."
6. Roosevelt, *An Autobiography*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. III — "Practical Politics."

In this chapter Roosevelt tells how he became a member of a Republican Association in New York City, made friends with the political bosses, was elected to the New York Legislature, and fought with all his might for honesty in the administration of the state's affairs. It is interesting from first to last.

7. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
Lesson A-19 — "Active Citizenship."

8. Shaw, *The Story of a Pioneer*. (Harper's.)
 Chap. ix — "Aunt Susan."
 Chap. xi — "The Widening of the Suffrage Stream."
 Chap. xiii — "President of 'The National.'"
 Chap. xiv — "Recent Campaigns."
 These chapters from the autobiography of a famous worker for woman suffrage show how this political issue was brought to the attention of the public.
9. Lindsey, *The Beast*. (Doubleday, Page & Co.)
 Chap. i — "Finding the Cat."
 Chap. ii — "The Cat Purrs."
 Chap. iii — "The Cat Keeps on Purring."
 Chap. iv — "The Beast in the Democracy."
 These are the first chapters in an autobiography of Judge Lindsey of the Denver Juvenile Court. They give us his first experiences in Denver politics.
10. Atlantic Classics. (The Atlantic Monthly Co.)
 Pages 173-80. Baker, "Entertaining the Candidate."
 This essay is a delightful picture of activities behind the scenes during a campaign.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Bryce, *The American Commonwealth*. (Macmillan.)
 Vol. II, Part III — "The Party System."
 This study of the party system in America is one of the most thorough, interesting, and exact accounts of political life in America that has been written. This part of Bryce's work is a real classic.
2. Beard, *Readings in American Government and Politics*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. vi — "The Evolution of Political Issues in the United States."
 The chapter is a series of extracts from famous documents dealing with political issues.
3. *National Municipal Review*, Supplement for September, 1920. Ralph S. Boots, "The Presidential Primary."
 This supplement is a close examination of the presidential primary at work. It also includes prospects for reform.
4. Merriam, *The American Party System*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. i — "Composition of a Political Party."
 Chap. viii — "The Party as a Formulation of Principles and Policies."
 Chap. xiii — "The Nature and Function of the Party."
 This volume is an analysis of our party system designed to show what the political party does for the community. It is well written, scientific, accurate, and interesting.

CHAPTER XXII

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN TOWNSHIPS AND COUNTIES

WHEN we were studying the changing meaning of democracy in our country, we saw that the founders of our nation were schooled in the democratic management of their local affairs. Our purpose in this chapter will be to gain an insight into these early systems of local government and their influence upon our present-day institutions.

Problems for you to investigate

OUR COUNTY GOVERNMENT

- I. Get a map of your county showing the townships. You will probably be able to secure this map, or at least sufficient information for you to make the map yourself, from the office of your county surveyor or your county assessor.
 1. Locate your own home on the map. Locate your school.
 2. From a tax statement get the legal description of some piece of real estate near your home. Why are not real estate taxes levied on property by street and number?
- II.
 1. From a roster of your state and county officials prepare a list of the officials in your county.
 2. Consult your state constitution or the charter of your county and find out which positions are filled by appointment and which are filled by election.
 3. Are the townships in your county entrusted with any special duties, or do they elect any officers? If so, make a chart showing the organization.
 4. On the basis of the information collected above make a chart, similar to the chart of Cook County given in your text, showing the organization and lines of authority of your county government.
 - a. Do you see any overlapping of duties?

- b. Is there any individual responsible to the people for the administration of the county's affairs? If not, what group is responsible?
- c. Can you suggest any ways in which the organization of your county government might be improved either by cutting down the number of elective officials or by combining departments?

III. Appoint committees of your class to study the institutions of your county. You may be able to get some very interesting information from reports about the poor farm, the county hospital, the court house, the jail, special schools, etc. Get what you can through your library, and then in coöperation with other classes try to make arrangements with some of your county officials to tell you the personal side of county work.

OUR TOWNSHIP GOVERNMENT

- I. From your town clerk obtain a map of your township showing principal roads, villages, schools, and township institutions, such as the almshouse, etc.
 1. Locate your home on the map. Locate your school.
 2. From a tax statement get the legal description of some piece of real estate near your home. Why are not real estate taxes in villages levied by street and number?
 3. Make a list of the institutions which your township supports. If possible obtain reports and find out what service each institution is rendering to the public.
- II. From files of your local newspapers, or directly from your town clerk obtain a copy of the warrant for the last annual town meeting held in your township, and reports of its proceedings. Find out:
 1. The date of the meeting.
 2. The number and percentage of voters in attendance.
 3. The business scheduled. What decisions were reached on the various questions?
 4. What officers were elected? How many were reelected to their old positions?
 5. What officers gave reports of their work? Find out if

these reports have been printed for public perusal. If so, read them carefully with a view to discovering:

- a. The service performed.
- b. Money expended.
- c. Suggestions for improvement.

III. On the basis of this information construct a chart similar to the township chart given in this chapter. Show organization and lines of authority of your township government.

1. Are services performed in the interest of the people?
2. Are officials controlled *by* the people?
3. Can you suggest any ways in which the government of your township might be improved?

i. The form of government in our early settlements was an outgrowth of the traditions of the people and the needs of the community.

The English colonists who settled our Atlantic seaboard brought with them the ideas on local government which were then prevalent in England. The two forms best suited to the new needs in America were the town, or township, and the county. In adapting these old forms perfected in closely settled England to the new conditions of an unexplored wilderness the colonists were compelled to exercise resourcefulness and initiative. Thus different systems of local government developed to meet the varied requirements of New England, the South, and the Middle colonies.

In New England the coast-line was dotted with convenient harbors, but these harbors were not open doors to the interior because the swift currents in the short streams and the hostility of the Indians discouraged inland settlements. The stony soil, wooded hillsides, wild game, and abundance of fish in the ocean likewise drew interest away from extensive agriculture in the interior, and encouraged the early settlers to remain in compact groups near the coast. Amid these surroundings it was natural for ship-building, fishing, commerce, and primitive manufacturing to occupy prominent places in community life. Another agency which tended to draw the

people together was their religious fervor. As a result of these geographic, occupational, and religious influences, the township form of government developed.

In the South, both the geographic conditions and the friendliness of the Indians encouraged agriculture on a large scale. Because the large plantations were cultivated by negro slaves, the white population was scattered over a wide area. Their needs were filled best by the county form of local government.

The settlers in the Middle states found that certain localities were naturally adapted to commercial and industrial pursuits, while others were best adapted to agriculture. Thus the need arose for combining the two forms of government already in existence in the South and in New England. This mixed form of government gave prominence to the township in the closely settled areas and to the county in the agricultural areas. Therefore, it came to be known as the county-township form of local government.

1. In what ways did the length and navigability of rivers affect occupations in the colonies? What influence have occupations upon the form of government?
 2. To what extent were the stony soil and superb timber in New England responsible for the development of the township form of government?
- 2. The town meeting characterizes the township form of government.**

From the period of the early settlements until the present the township form of government with its annual town meeting has been the predominant form of local government in the New England states. Though changes have been made to meet the more complicated problems of twentieth-century life, the township and town meeting of to-day are fundamentally of the same pattern as in the seventeenth century. Then, the chief matters of concern were protection against the Indians, the support of the church, and the observance

of the laws and customs of the town. Now, the township through its town meeting provides for public schools, for fire and police protection, for community health, for the care of the poor and the insane, for the construction of roads and bridges, for the levying of taxes, and for other matters of local concern.

Annual town meetings are regularly held either in the spring or in the early autumn. All voters have the privilege and duty of attending. Several weeks previous to the meeting,



A TYPICAL NEW ENGLAND TOWN HALL
At Needham, Massachusetts.

the selectmen issue a warrant which calls the meeting and states the business to be transacted. Usually this business falls under three main heads: reports of town officers for the past year, election of new officers, and legislation on matters of local interest. The direct participation of the citizens in discussions on questions of vital importance to their town not only educates them to be more intelligent citizens of their local community, but also trains leaders for the state and nation.

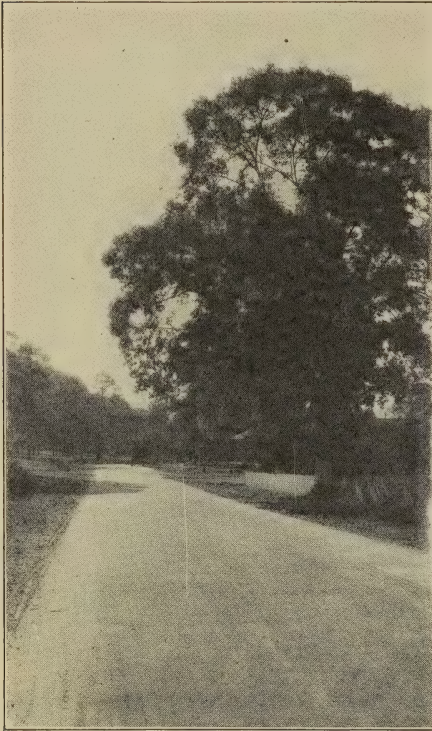
Chief among the officers elected by the town meeting are

the *selectmen*, or general administrators of town affairs, to whom special powers are given to decide questions that arise between meetings. They form an executive committee to put into effect the measures decided in the meeting. Next in importance is the *town clerk*, who keeps the records of the proceedings of the meeting, has charge of the town archives, issues marriage licenses, and registers births, deaths, and marriages. The *town assessors* value all the real estate and personal property, and then assess the taxes levied by the town meeting and also those for county and state purposes. These taxes are paid to the *town treasurer*, who forwards county and state taxes to the proper officials and pays all bills for town expenses that are properly signed by the selectmen. The *overseers of the poor* supervise the management of the town almshouse and grant relief to the distressed in times of emergency. *Constables* are elected to act as peace officers. In every town there is a *school board* whose duty it is to establish schools in suitable places, to appoint teachers, and to regulate the course of study. In addition, numerous less important officials perform minor services.

1. Is the New England town meeting *of, by, and for* the people? Explain.
2. Where is the New England township form of government likely to be more successful, in a town of three thousand population, or in one of thirty thousand? Why?
3. **Chief among the numerous officials in the counties in the South is a board of commissioners or supervisors.**

In colonial times the commissioners or supervisors were appointed by the governor. Their duties were in some respects similar to those of the selectmen in the New England towns. Now, the supervisors or commissioners are elected by the people, and they have as their chief duties the levying of taxes for county expenses, the upkeep and construction of roads and bridges, the care of the poor, and the custody of county property.

Other county officials are the judges and clerks of the courts established in the county, the state's attorney, the sheriff, the board of assessors, the clerk, the treasurer, the coroner,



A HIGHWAY IN LOUISIANA

Since the Federal Government now extends aid to States which desire to establish a good system of public roads, road building is no longer chiefly the work of the counties, but is carried on by coöperation between the governments of the county, state, and nation. (*Courtesy of Bureau of Roads, Washington, D.C.*)

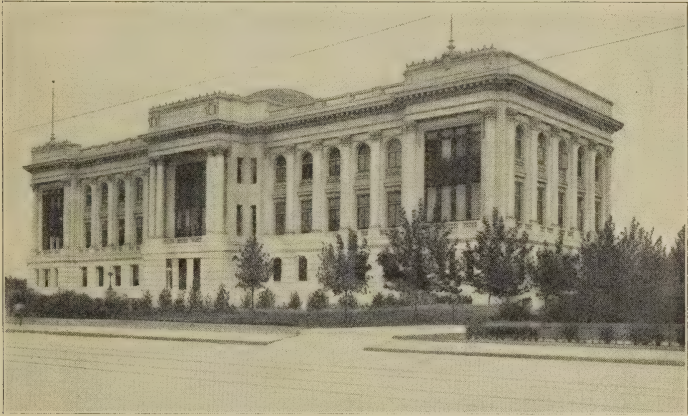
the recorder, the surveyor, and the superintendent of schools, all elected by the people. In the main, the duties of the clerk, treasurer, board of assessors, and sheriff in the county correspond to the duties of the clerk, treasurer, assessors, and constables in the New England towns. The coroner holds inquests over bodies of people who die under suspicious circumstances, and he reports his findings either to a judge or to the state's attorney. The work of the state's attorney is to prosecute law-breakers, to represent the county in legal disputes, and to give advice to county officials.

What check have the people of a county upon their elected

officials? Is it more or less efficient than that of the New England township?

4. In the county-township form of local government powers are divided between the county and the township.

As the idea of township and county government took root in the Middle states, two plans developed. In New York each township holds an annual meeting at which it elects various township officers including a supervisor to represent the township on the county board of supervisors. In Pennsylvania



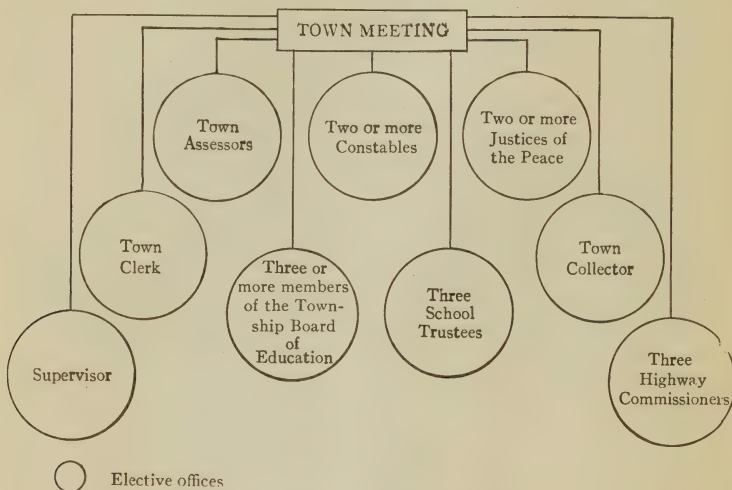
A COUNTY COURT-HOUSE

County buildings similar to this one are in use in many prosperous communities throughout the United States.

the people as a whole elect a Board of Commissioners. The township as such receives no representation. As the people from Pennsylvania moved West, they took their plan with them. Consequently, such states as Ohio, Indiana, and Kansas follow the Pennsylvania plan. States like Michigan and Wisconsin, settled largely by people from New York and New England, have adopted the New York system. The accompanying chart on page 344 gives some idea of township organization in states following the New York plan.

All these officials have much the same round of official duties as similar officials in New England. However, the supervisor also represents his township on the county board,

and the school trustees, constables, justices of the peace, and highway commissioners must make their work conform to standards laid down by the county. On the whole, the most important work of the township is in the assessment and collection of taxes, and in the organization of the schools. Other matters of local concern are under the control of the county or of incorporated cities.

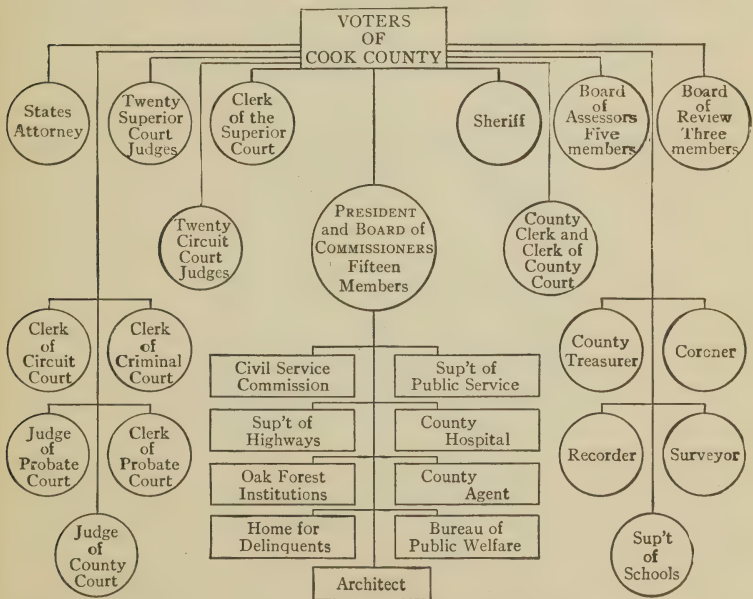


GOVERNMENT IN TOWNSHIPS

1. From what places did the early settlers of your state come? How are their ideas on local government reflected in the system prevalent in your state?
 2. Why are townships in states north of the Ohio River and west of the Mississippi usually six miles square? Appoint a committee of your class to find out about the government survey of lands in the West. Of what importance was this survey at the time when it was made? Of what importance is it now?
5. The organization of county government in many states is inefficient.

Although the work of the county outside of the New England

states is of the greatest importance, county administration is markedly inefficient in many states largely because of the long list of elective officials. As business is conducted at present, it is next to impossible in many counties even for interested, inquisitive citizens to discover how many miles of road were built in their county during the last year, what the different kinds of paving cost, or how much money was spent in maintaining the county jail or the county farm. If the board of supervisors or commissioners were the only elected officials, and if they had the power to regulate the expenditure of all county funds, then citizens could hold them responsible for economy and efficiency. As conditions now are, there is frequently no central authority and no responsible management of county affairs. For example, there are seventy-seven elective officials in the government of Cook County, Illinois.



○ Elective officials
 □ Appointive officials

Adapted from chart in "Consolidation of Local Governments in Chicago" prepared by Chicago Bureau of Public Efficiency in 1920.

CHART OF THE GOVERNMENT OF COOK COUNTY, ILLINOIS

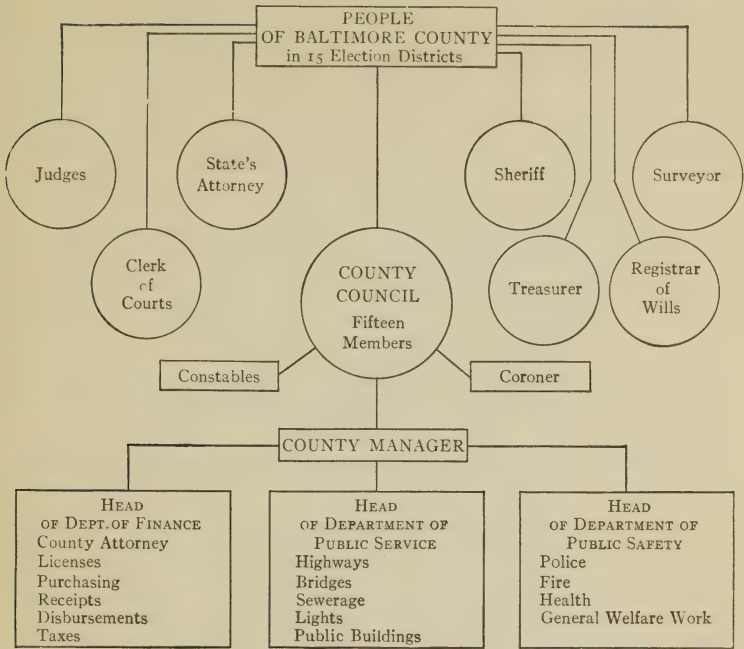
Each one is practically independent of all the others and is responsible, not to other elective officials, but directly to the people. Under these conditions there can be little or no coördination of effort or supervision of activities. The chart on page 345 gives a picture of the organization of the government in Cook County.

1. Why do most counties elect the county superintendent of schools? Do you think school officials ought to be elected by the people? Are city superintendents usually elected by the people?
2. Why is the county committee of a political party one of the most important parts of the local organization? Are political leaders likely to be in favor of a large or of a small number of elective officials? Why?

6. The county-manager plan seeks to centralize county administration.

The charter submitted to the voters of Baltimore County, Maryland, in November, 1920, was one of the first county charters devised to remedy the flagrant defects in county organization. The charter, as submitted, abolished the office of county commissioner, and substituted for the commission an elective council which was to make the laws for the county, of course within the limits laid down by the state constitution and the state legislature. This council was to select a full-time county manager as the responsible head of the county's affairs. The administrative work of the county was to be divided among three departments whose heads were to be nominated by the manager and appointed by the council. Nearly all the work of the county except that of the courts was transferred to the council and the manager. The accompanying chart on page 347 will help to make clear the proposed scheme of government.

Although this charter was one of the most enlightened plans for the reform of county administration, and received praise from many students of government, it was defeated by a



○ Elective offices
 □ Appointive offices

Adapted from Chart in National Municipal Review, August, 1920.

ORGANIZATION OF COUNTY GOVERNMENT

decisive majority of the voters of Baltimore County. During the campaign the charter was opposed by the leaders of the political organizations in the county and by office-holders, many of whom would have been displaced if the charter had carried. Also, many taxpayers feared that such a radical change in the plan of government might disturb rates of taxation. Another source of criticism was that the abolition of the board of county commissioners was illegal. A study of this effort to improve the government of Baltimore county shows that county government can be put on a better basis if the people desire it. It also shows what mighty forces are at work

to prevent any changes for the better. No doubt, the discussion in Baltimore County has helped to educate the people of the nation to the idea of central control of county affairs. The next time a charter of this kind is prepared by a group of citizens and put on the ballot, it will doubtless stand a better chance to succeed.

1. In what ways is the defeated plan of government for Baltimore County different from the government of Cook County? Under which plan are taxes likely to be lower? Why?
2. Under which plan is the power of political parties likely to be greater? Why?
3. Why do not the citizens of all the counties in our country organize their county governments in an efficient way?

7. Township and county governments are supported by direct taxation.

Before the selectmen of a township or the board of supervisors of a county can determine the tax rate, they must do two things. First, they must make a budget of proposed expenditures for the ensuing year. Then they must obtain reports of their assessors on the value of the real estate and personal property of the residents. By dividing the proposed expenditures by the assessed valuation, the tax rate is obtained. For example, if the assessed valuation of the property in a county is one million dollars and the budget calls for an expenditure of fifty thousand dollars, the rate is fifty thousand divided by one million, or one twentieth, or five per cent. Therefore, every property-owner pays five per cent of the assessed valuation of his property to the county as his share of the county tax.

In addition to this general tax counties and townships receive certain revenues from licenses and permits, from fees, fines, and penalties, from rent of public lands or buildings, and from interest on public funds deposited in banks. For example, fees for marriage licenses, for recording deeds, for surveying land, and for administering wills, and fines imposed by the county or township courts, all go into the county or

township treasury. Thus the citizens pay for the services of their county and township government in proportion to their ability to pay and to the services which they seek directly.

1. Get a tax statement for a recent year. What is the relation between the assessed valuation of the property and its market valuation? What is the tax rate in your township or county?
2. Get a report of your township or county treasurer. Make a list of all the sources from which he obtained funds. Figure percentages for each source of revenue, then make a diagram showing clearly the relative income from all sources.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Dunn, *Community Civics and Rural Life*. (Heath.)
Chap. xiv — "The Relation Between the People and the Land."
This chapter gives a clear account of the government survey of western lands.
2. Dunn, *Community Civics for City Schools*. (Heath.)
Chap. xxv — "Township and County Government."
3. Hill, *Community Life and Civic Problems*. (Ginn.)
Chap. xvii — "Local Government."

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Hart, *Actual Government under American Conditions*. (Longmans, Green.)
Chap. x — "Rural Units of Local Government."
2. Fairlie, *Local Government in Counties, Towns, and Villages*. (Century Co.)
Part II — "The County."
The chapters in this section give a very detailed account of county institutions under varying conditions.
3. Gilbertson, *The County: the Dark Continent of American Politics*. (National Short Ballot Organization.)
This book is one of the very few books entirely given over to the study of county government. It gives interesting details concerning the development and functioning of our county institutions.

CHAPTER XXIII

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN CITIES

ONE of the far-reaching results of our industrial development is the concentration of large numbers of people in proximity to centers of commerce and manufacture. Because these closely settled areas have special problems of public health, recreation, education, and fire and police protection which township and county governments are not adapted to handle, nearly all urban communities organize their own governments. In this chapter we shall find out how city governments are organized and what functions they perform for city dwellers.

Problems for you to investigate

THE GOVERNMENT OF OUR CITY

- I. Through your librarian get copies of the charter of your city, or copies of the state law under which your city is incorporated. Find out:
 1. The kind of government, i.e., mayor-plus-council, board of trustees, commission, or city manager. If you have the first system, get or make a map of your city showing the wards.
 2. The provisions for nomination and election of officials, terms of office, salaries, etc.
 3. Number of appointive positions and methods of obtaining them.
- II. Make a chart of the government of your city similar to the charts in the text. Show clearly:
 1. The legislative, executive, and judicial branches.
 2. The relation of these branches to the voters.
 3. The relation of the city departments to the other branches of the government and to the voters.
- III. Divide your class into as many committees as there are city departments. Each committee will then study the work of one department and report its findings to the class. For this

purpose each committee should divide its work into the following parts:

1. Brief historical sketch of the department including famous leaders in its work, etc. Early reports will probably give interesting information about reasons for organization.
2. The organization of the department and a brief statement of the work done by each division, as shown by reports.
3. Newspaper clippings, pictures, etc., relative to the work of the department. Each committee should mark its pictures and clippings carefully and put them on exhibition for the benefit of the class.

1. City governments offer many advantages to city dwellers.

Many city dwellers have become so accustomed to the services and conveniences of their city that they fail to coöperate with their officials for the improvement of the city's work. No city's employees can put forth their best efforts unless they feel that there is a great, interested group of citizens supporting them. A city is much more than a large number of people living close together, working in industry and in the professions, attending the city's places of amusement, and enjoying the city's parks. Within the group of city dwellers there must spring up a sense of common interest and of common need. The power and brains of the whole community must unite for the accomplishment of definite purposes. The people must come to see their city as a great working whole, just as they see their neighborhood and their own family group as working wholes. Under these conditions community spirit is aroused and extended, and all the citizens can work together to overcome great difficulties easily.

American cities have tried to satisfy their most urgent needs. They have provided for the protection of their buildings against fire, and of the lives and property of their citizens against criminals. They have paved the streets and made provisions for keeping them in good condition. In recent years they have come to think more about the health of their

citizens than formerly. Consequently they have made provisions for an adequate water supply, for garbage and sewage disposal, for milk and food inspection, and for public markets. In addition, they regulate the construction of buildings, in-



A BIT OF JAPAN TRANSPLANTED TO GOLDEN GATE PARK

In the early days of San Francisco this place was a sand-blown waste. By diligent efforts San Francisco has transformed her ocean front into one of the most beautiful parks in the world. (*Courtesy of San Francisco Chamber of Commerce.*)

spect plumbing, light and clean the streets and alleys, and have a voice in fixing rates for telephone, water, gas, electricity, and local transportation.

For a long time cities have been interested in the education of adults, not only through the public evening schools, but also through public concerts, lectures, museums, libraries, zoölogical gardens, parks, and recreation centers.

The city also educates the children, protects the city's youth by special laws if they work in factories after school or during vacations, and in some cases maintains free schools for technical and professional education for those who have finished high school.

1. Make a list of the things your city or town is doing for you.
2. Who is paying the bill for these services? Do you consider the cost of city life high? Why, or why not?
3. When houses are under construction the city sends inspectors to look at the plumbing, the electric wiring, the structure of partitions, etc. Is not all this inspection an interference with the rights of the individual citizen? If so, why do people permit this interference to continue?

2. Cities are corporations under the control of the state legislature.

Nearly every activity of the city government directly or indirectly is a matter of interest to the people of the state as a whole. For example, state and municipal elections are often held on the same day, with the same ballots, the same officers in charge of the polls, and the same securities for fairness. Therefore, the city's provisions for elections must guarantee such fairness that all the people of the state will be satisfied with the voting on state officers within the limits of that city. Such is also the case with the city's policemen, who are appointed and paid by municipal authorities, but who spend a large part of their time in enforcing state laws. City schools are a part of the state school system, city courts are a part of the state judicial system, and many cities draw their water supply from the same sources as many less populous areas of the state. For these reasons the legislature of a state passes many laws which affect the cities within its boundaries.

The most important and most vital piece of legislation for a city is its charter. In some states the charter of a city is drawn up by a committee of citizens, approved by popular vote, and then submitted to the legislature for approval. Other less progressive states still have the charters for their cities drawn up by committees of the state legislature. Probably no act of the state legislature is more important to a city than the law which grants it a charter.



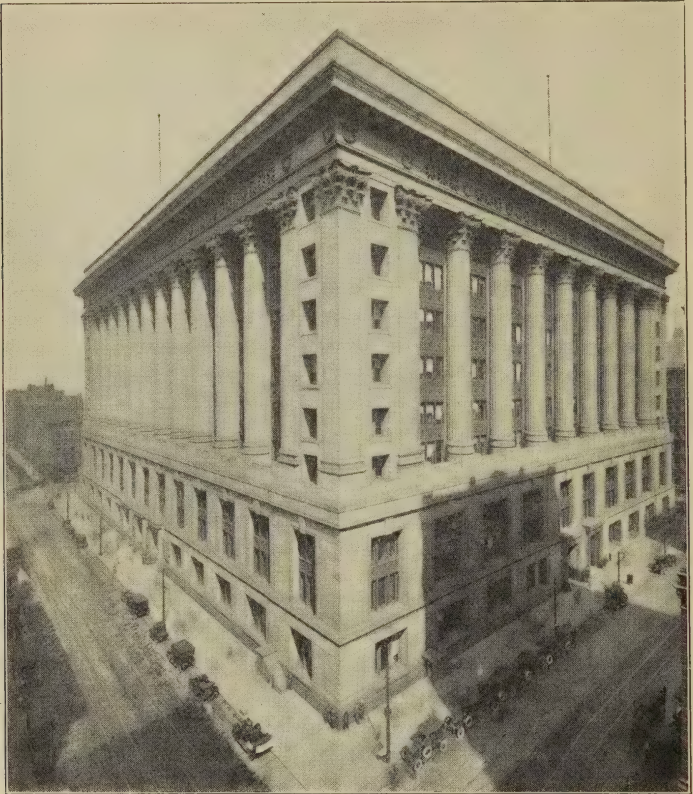
CONSERVATORY IN WASHINGTON PARK,
CHICAGO

The commissioners in charge of the park in which this conservatory is located are appointed by the Governor of Illinois. The people in the community served by this park will be able to elect the commissioners only when the state legislature changes the law. (*Courtesy of Chicago Boosters' Publicity Club.*)

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The purpose of a charter is to state how the government of a city shall be managed. The charter makes the city a public



CITY HALL AND COUNTY BUILDING IN CHICAGO

This building is typical of the more recently constructed municipal buildings in large cities. In it are located all the offices of all city officials, the municipal courts, the tax collection department, and the city council's meeting-place. (Courtesy of Chicago Boosters' Publicity Club.)

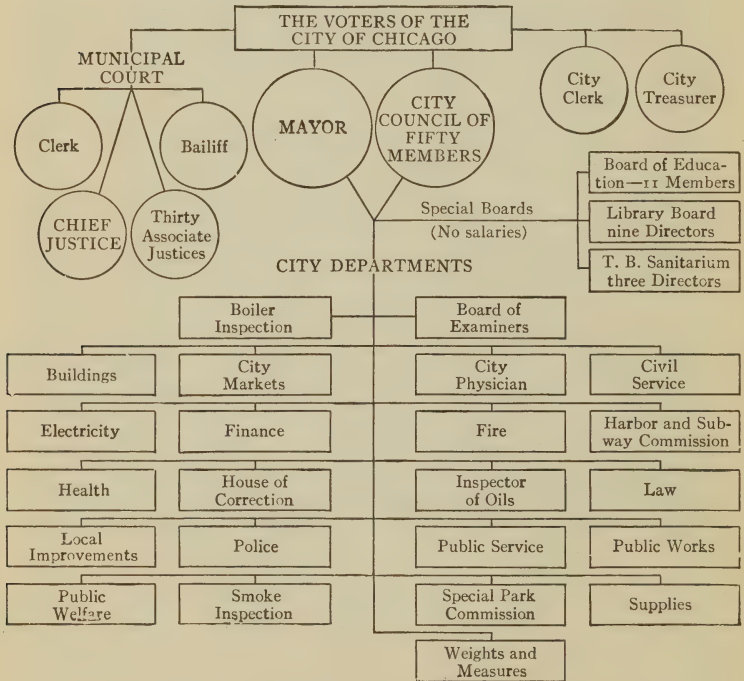
corporation with power to contract debts for certain specified purposes. Thus, by incorporating, that is, securing a charter from the state, the people of a city are given rights and privileges which they otherwise would not enjoy. Sometimes

charters are elaborate pieces of work. For example, the charter of Greater New York, granted by the New York legislature of 1897, is seven hundred and fifty pages long and represents eight months' labor by the charter commission. However, many well-governed cities have less voluminous charters. For example, the charter of Dayton, Ohio, adopted in 1913, which occupies a most advanced place in American city government, is scarcely twenty-five pages long. A charter ought to be inclusive enough to assure the city's residents that under it the city will have the organization and powers necessary for its needs. At the same time it should be short enough to encourage the ordinary citizen to read it, and simple enough to make him feel that he understands the legal rights of his city government.

1. Make a list of the ways in which good government in your city advances the general good of your state.
 2. If the legislature in your state constantly interfered in the affairs of your city, what could the citizens do?
 3. How long is your city charter? How long does it take to read it?
- 3. Many city charters provide for the mayor-plus-council plan of government.**

The form of government in a large number of American cities is built around a mayor and a council. The mayor is elected by the people to be the head of the city's administrative affairs. Usually he is also chairman of the council. The council makes the laws for the city within the limits prescribed by the charter. It is usually composed of representatives, called councilmen or aldermen, who are elected by the people of the wards or precincts of the city. When any question of policy comes up, each alderman, or councilman, is able to express the opinions of the people in the part of the city which he represents. Sometimes cities have their law-making body in two houses; but recent city charters commonly provide for only one house. Under the mayor-plus-council

system the legislative work is performed by the council. The executive work is carried on by boards appointed by the mayor, but subject to the approval of a municipal court. The judges and officers of this court are elected by the people and are responsible to them. Thus a complete system of checks and balances is set up. The accompanying chart of Chicago's government is a fair example of this form of government in a large city. Notice the large number of elective officials, especially in the municipal court. Notice also the very large number of city departments.



- Elective offices
- Appointive offices

Adapted from chart in "Consolidation of Local Governments in Chicago" prepared by Chicago Bureau of Public Efficiency.

THE MAYOR-PLUS-COUNCIL SYSTEM IN CHICAGO

1. What is the legislative branch of government? The judicial branch? The executive branch? In which branch is the head of a city department? The mayor? A judge in the municipal court? The clerk in the municipal court? The city clerk? An alderman?
 2. What is the meaning of the expression, "a system of checks and balances"? Who or what is checked? What is balanced against what? What good do checks and balances do?
 3. The Chicago Board of Education is nominated by the Mayor and approved by the Council. Do you think that this way of providing a school board is a good one? Why, or why not? Is your school board put into office in this way? Why do most communities prefer to elect the members of their school board?
 4. What is the work of the clerk of a court? Do you think this office ought to be appointive or elective? Why?
- 4. Cities using the mayor-plus-council system frequently come under the control of political "bosses."**

Since the election of city officials usually occurs at the same time as the election of county officials, and in some places at the same time as the election of members of the state legislature, of the governor of the state, and of judges in state courts, the ballot on election day contains a lengthy list of nominees. For example, in a recent year, the people of New York City were called upon to elect not only a mayor and other city officials, but also various county officials, a judge of the Court of Appeals, and members of the state legislature. For the position of mayor, there were six candidates, all backed by some sort of political organization. The array of such a list of names on a ballot takes out of the voters' hands the possibility of making an intelligent choice of officials. The voter is likely to cast his ballot for a candidate not because he knows anything about his ability to fill the position, but because a certain party endorses him. As a rule, the candidate has been selected by the party leader because he has been a faithful party worker. Thus many unknown men get into office under cover of the party's emblem. Doubtless many voters on the

day after election cannot recall even the names of the men for whom they cast their ballots. Under these conditions all that the citizens have done in the election is to put a certain political party in control of their affairs. There has been no choice made between individuals, but rather a choice between political organizations. Thus the "long" ballot¹ plays into the hands of political leaders.

Another serious difficulty is that local issues become confused with state and national issues. For example, in New York City the local issue in a recent year was a five-cent fare and the problem of local transportation. But the attention of the voters was directed to state and national issues. The Democrats wished to show the Republican governor of the state that they disapproved of his policies, and they wished to show the country that New York was not a Republican stronghold even if it had given President Harding a plurality of four hundred thousand votes in the 1920 election. In this way the confusion was increased and the city put its mayor and other officials into power with little regard for their ability to solve the city's transportation problems. Every newspaper in the city, with but one exception, had opposed the successful ticket; but even this effort to mould public opinion was not able to overcome the leaders of a strongly organized party.

As long as the mayor-plus-council system clings to the "long" ballot in elections and mixes local politics with state and national issues, the cities which employ the system will suffer from bad management.

1. When was the last election for officials in your town or city held? How many offices were filled at that time? Were they all city offices, or were some of them county, state, or federal offices?
2. How many names appeared on the ballot? You may be able

¹ There is a "long" ballot in an election when the voters are asked to elect a large number of public officials, even those whose offices are too unimportant to deserve any public mention.

to get sample ballots from your city clerk, or from political leaders in your neighborhood. Appoint members of your class to investigate. If you are unable to obtain ballots from these sources, look up the files of your local newspapers in your public library. In the issues preceding the date of the election you will doubtless find cuts of the ballot. Copy carefully.

5. The commission form of city government seeks to remedy the disadvantages of the mayor-plus-council system.

In 1900, a tidal wave almost destroyed the city of Galveston, Texas. Because the government for many years before the



A CITY HALL IN A CITY OF SIXTY THOUSAND PEOPLE

This building is typical of city halls in prosperous communities of this size.

disaster had been inefficient and extravagant, many of the citizens had little hope that the city would be able to recover. Immediately after the catastrophe, however, the business men of the city met and organized a new form of government along strictly business lines. The new system called for a mayor and four commissioners selected for their ability to do the work

which the city needed to have done. Within four years Galveston had paid off nine tenths of its debt, had expended large sums for street-paving, charities, and civic improvements, without increasing the tax rate or issuing new bonds. The city showed what great things could be accomplished by a business administration of the city's affairs.

Within a short time the eyes of all people interested in the improvement of city government were turned toward Galveston. Many communities have since studied the commission idea and have adapted it to their local needs. Houston, Des Moines, Cedar Rapids, Keokuk, Memphis, Berkeley, and many other communities have made contributions to the experiment undertaken by storm-tossed Galveston.

At present the main ideas involved in a commission form of government are:

1. The commission is composed of five members elected at large for four year terms, one of whom is called the mayor. The mayor is the presiding officer at meetings of the commission, and is the official representative of the city, but he has no veto power nor any other special power not shared by other commissioners.
2. The commission is the source of all authority in the city, makes all ordinances, collects all taxes, makes all appropriations, and prepares the city budget.
3. Important divisions of the city's affairs are assigned to individual members of the commission, each of whom is directly responsible to the people for the conduct of the work entrusted to him.
4. Meetings of the commission are held regularly, frequently, and publicly. There are no secret committee meetings.
5. All employees are selected from lists prepared by a civil service board with special reference to the merit and fitness of applicants.
6. The people usually reserve to themselves three important powers:
 - a. The *initiative*, which is the right to start legislation by the circulation of petitions among the voters.

- b. The *referendum*, which is the right to call for a public vote on any measure adopted by the commission before it is enforced as law.
- c. The *recall*, which is the right to make any member of the commission stand for reëlection at any time when the people are seriously concerned about his conduct of the city's affairs.

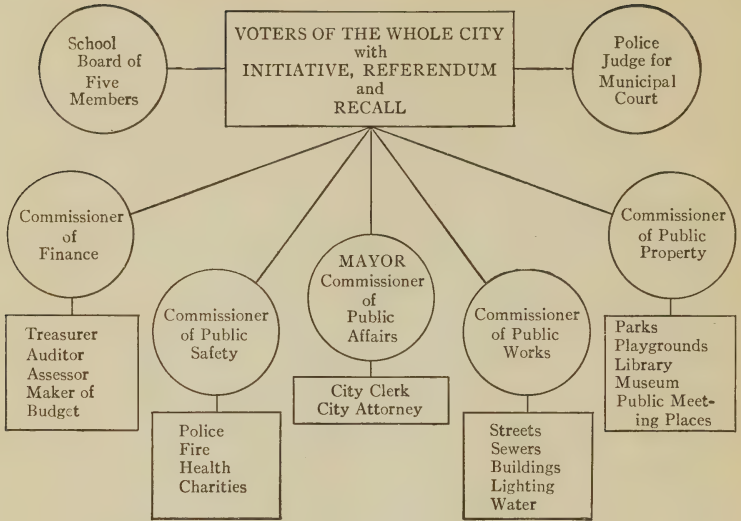
The method of electing commissioners deserves notice. In place of the complicated system of party nominations by conventions or party leaders, there is substituted a system of non-partisan nominations by the people. In some places, like Des Moines, there are two elections. At the first one, or primary, any citizen may become a candidate by filing a paper containing the signatures of twenty-five qualified city voters. The names of the two candidates competing for the same position and receiving the highest number of votes at the primary are placed on the final ballot. If three members of the commission were to be elected, six names would appear on the ballot.

This method of electing only a few important public officials at one time is known as the "short ballot." All commission charters call for elections by some modification of this system. The principles behind the short ballot idea are that only those offices should be elective which are important enough to compel public interest, and that only a few offices should be filled at one time in order that the people may have an opportunity to learn of the merits of the candidates. The system eliminates all small and relatively unimportant offices from the ballot. It puts emphasis upon the duties and responsibilities of the few men who are standing for election.

The accompanying diagram on page 362 will help to make clear the exact relation of the usual city government by commission to the conduct of the city's affairs.

1. Why is a city under a commission form of government able to conduct its affairs more economically than a city governed by a mayor and council?

THE GOOD CITIZEN



○ Elective offices
 □ Appointive offices

CITY GOVERNMENT BY COMMISSION

2. What is the meaning of the expression, "commissioners are elected at large"? How are the members of the council in the mayor-plus-council system elected? Which method do you think is the better? Why?
3. What becomes of the wards in a city when it adopts a commission form of government? Is the commission system better adapted to large cities or to small cities? Why?
4. The granting of a franchise is frequently a question on which the people of a city desire a referendum. What is a franchise? Why do people wish to have a direct voice in granting it?

6. The city-manager plan is a development of the commission idea.

Just as a great disaster awakened the people of Galveston to the need for improving their city government, so a great flood in 1913 awakened the people of Dayton, Ohio. After

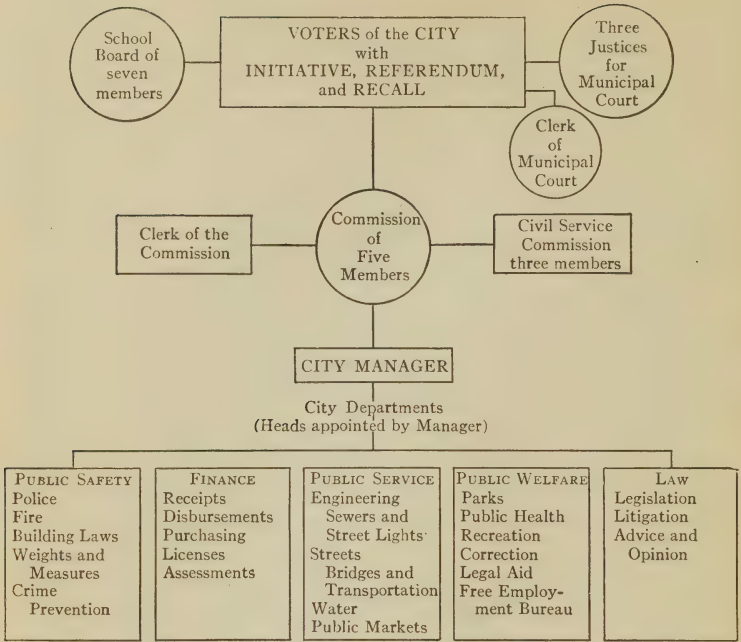
loyal citizens had studied the improvements made in Des Moines and in Galveston, they decided to try a similar experiment in the management of their city's affairs. The difference between the Des Moines plan and the Dayton plan is this: the commissioners in Dayton pass ordinances adapted to the city's needs, and then they delegate the executive work to an expert who is fitted by nature, training, and experience to manage city business. Thus the commission keeps its legislative powers, but delegates its executive powers.

Since the expert employed by the commission is called a city manager, this plan of local government is called the city-manager plan. It is a suitable name because the responsibility for good administration of the city's affairs is in the hands of the city manager. He appoints the heads of city departments, and supervises their work carefully. He must find such competent subordinates, and he must develop in them such a fine spirit of coöperation that all the city departments will work in harmony for the satisfaction of the needs of the people. As long as the manager can uphold these high standards he retains his position. When he fails, the commission has the right to discharge him, and the people have the right to recall him.

Under such guidance many communities have obtained better and cheaper administration of their affairs. During 1920 more than forty cities adopted city-manager charters. In April, 1923, there was a total of 302 cities under this form of local government. So successful has been the operation of this plan that only three cities have abandoned it by direct vote of the people during the fifteen years it has been in use. The spread of the city-manager idea is one of the most hopeful signs of better governmental conditions in our cities.

The accompanying diagram on page 364 is designed to show the relation of the city manager to the government and to the citizens. Compare it with the diagram for the county-manager plan of Baltimore County, Maryland, and also with the plan given above for government by commission.

THE GOOD CITIZEN



○ Elective offices

Courtesy of City Manager of Dayton, Ohio

□ Appointive offices

THE CITY-MANAGER PLAN

The Government of Dayton, Ohio.

1. In what ways is the city-manager plan different from the commission system? Which plan do you consider the better? Why?
2. Some people say that both the city-manager plan and the commission system are mere schemes for economy in city administration and disregard the wishes of the people. Do you agree?
3. Does any city or town near you employ a city manager? What is the feeling of the ordinary citizen toward him?

7. City revenues are usually obtained from sources similar to those of counties and townships.

Before any taxes are assessed the city council, commission, or city manager makes up the annual budget of proposed expenditures in the same way as do the selectmen in the township and the commissioners or supervisors in the county. In places where township or county officials assess city property for purposes of county taxation, the city government utilizes their lists of property valuations. The tax rate for the city is obtained by dividing the proposed expenditures by the total assessed valuation of all city property, is apportioned among the property holders, and is added to the county or township taxes. For example, the tax bill in a certain city of fifty thousand inhabitants in a recent year was:

City taxes per \$100 of assessed valuation	\$2.59
County and special school taxes on same basis	<u>4.36</u>
Total rate per \$100 of assessed valuation	\$6.95

When the city authorities are figuring the city budget, they make estimates of revenues from other sources besides taxation, and they depend upon these funds to provide the upkeep of certain enterprises. For example, if a city owns its own water system and sells water to the people, rates will probably be sufficient to meet the expenses of procuring and safeguarding the water supply. Other revenues are fines imposed by judges in police courts on law violators; special assessments for street-paving, sewers, etc.; fees paid by factories, bakeries, and other enterprises for inspection by city health officials; licenses charged peddlers, store-keepers, proprietors of places of amusement, owners of dogs, etc.; and franchises granted to street-car, telephone, gas, and electric companies which enable them to serve the people of the city. The city also collects interest on its funds which are deposited in banks, and it obtains rentals for use of city property. Thus the extraordinary revenues of a city are likely to come from more sources than the revenues of the county or township. How-

ever, the aim is the same, namely, to distribute taxation among all the people in proportion to their ability to pay.

1. In what sense may it be said that the man who rents his house pays real estate taxes to the city?
2. In what ways are you assisting your grocer to pay taxes when you buy groceries?
3. What is a board of equalization? Appoint a committee of your class to interview some real estate dealer with the purpose of finding out the necessity for this board and the way in which it performs its functions.
4. Through your librarian or directly from your city treasurer obtain a list of the sources of revenue of your city government and the amounts derived from each source. Figure how many cents in each dollar of the total revenue come from each source. Then make a large circle on your blackboard or on poster paper and divide it into segments so as to show how city revenues are obtained. After you have finished this study your librarian will probably be glad to exhibit your poster for inspection by the public.
5. Using the same method, make a chart showing how each dollar is spent.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Woodruff, *City Government by Commission*. (Appleton.)
 Chap. XI — "Results in Galveston, Houston, and Other Texas Cities."
 Chap. XIII — "Results in Des Moines, Cedar Rapids, and Other Iowa Cities."
 These chapters give definite instances of the progress which these cities had made up to 1912 under the commission form of government.
2. Toulmin, *The City Manager*. (Appleton.)
 (Chap. II — "The Old Order."
 Chap. VI — "The City Manager."
 These two chapters present the old and the new forms of city government.
3. Rightor, *The City Manager in Dayton*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. I — "How Dayton Got Good Government."
 Chap. IV — "The City Manager at Work."
4. Fitzpatrick, *Experts in City Government*. (Appleton.)
 Chap. IV — "The Need for Experts in City Government."
 Chap. IX — "Citizens' Coöperation with Government."
 Chap. XXIII — "Control of the Expert."

5. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
Lesson B-19 — "The Commission Form of City Government and the City Manager."
6. *National Municipal Review*, March, 1920. Hatton, "Jackson and its Manager."
This article is a detailed, interesting account of the work of the city manager in Jackson, Michigan.
7. Tufts, *The Real Business of Living*. (Holt.)
Chap. xxx — "What the City Does for its Citizens."

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Woodruff, *City Government by Commission*. (Appleton.)
Chap. vi — "Provisions of Commission Governments Analyzed."
This chapter gives a clear statement of the fundamental principles of commission government.
2. Goodnow, *Municipal Government*. (Century Co.)
Chap. vi — "The City as an Organ for the Satisfaction of Local Needs."
Chap. vii — "The Legal Position of the Modern City."
The author's frequent references to European cities and their methods are an aid to understanding our own city problems.
3. Hart, *Actual Government under American Conditions*. (Longmans, Green.)
Chap. xi — "City Governments."
Chap. xii — "Problems of City Government."
4. Deming, *The Government of American Cities*. (Putnam.)
Chap. xiv — "A City's Charter."
5. Beman, *Municipal Government*. (H. W. Wilson Co.)
This book contains an excellent list of references to periodical literature dealing with the problems and defects of city government. The teacher will find it worth while to check through this list and to assign each pupil an article as the basis of a three-minute report to the class. The book also contains briefs and affirmative and negative discussions on municipal home rule, the commission plan and the city-manager plan.

CHAPTER XXIV

STATE GOVERNMENT

IN our study of our local institutions established for such purposes as safeguarding health, preventing fires, assisting dependents, regulating conditions in industry, and educating the community, we have seen that a large part of the work of local government consists in executing plans made by the state government. Our purpose now is to find out what powers our state governments have, how they are organized, and how the people control them.

Problems for you to investigate

THE GOVERNMENT OF OUR STATE

- I. Get an outline map of your state showing the counties. From your roster of city, county and state officials find out what counties or parts of counties comprise each senatorial district. Mark the outlines of the senatorial districts in some distinctive way. Find your own district.
 1. How do the districts compare in area? Account for differences.
 2. When were these boundaries of districts established? When will there be a chance for a change?
 3. What is meant by gerrymandering? (Look up this word in your dictionary for a definition of the term.) Examine your map carefully to decide whether your state is gerrymandered. If so, which political party is responsible?
- II. Make a list of the elective officials in your state government. Decide whether each one is a member of the executive, legislative, or judicial branch of the government. Make a chart for each branch showing distinctly the relation of the officer to the people of the state and to the other officers in his department. If an elective official has power to appoint any subordinates, show who they are and how long their terms are. Use circles

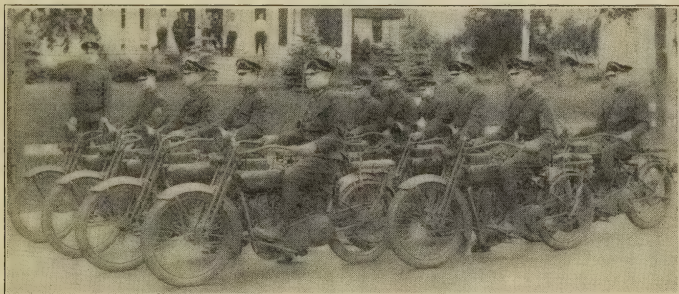
to indicate the elective officials and oblongs for those appointed, as in the chart of the executive branch of the government of Illinois given in your text.

III. On an outline map of your state locate the institutions entirely supported by state funds. Appoint committees of your class to get reports of the work of these institutions, and to present their findings to the class. In these class reports include:

1. A general description of the buildings, grounds, location.
2. The annual cost of maintaining the institution.
3. The number of people in its care.
4. The aims and ideals which the institution represents.
5. The service it renders to the people of the state.

1. State governments have extensive powers.

When the first settlements were made along our Atlantic coast, every colony was confronted with its own peculiar problems. The people of each colony learned to work together for the solution of these problems, but it was not until the beginnings of the War of Independence that they felt that the



STATE POLICE AT WYOMING, PENNSYLVANIA

These men stand ready to keep order in any part of the State to which they are called.
(Courtesy of Harley-Davidson Motor Company.)

different colonies had interests in common. Each colony kept its own institutions and its own individuality. The boundaries of a colony were real lines of separation between distinct communities with varying ideals. Massachusetts was as different from Connecticut as Maryland was from Delaware or

Pennsylvania from New York. Each colony made its own treaties with the Indians, enacted laws governing duties to be paid on imports from other colonies, fought its own battles for better charters with the English kings, decided what people could settle within its boundaries, and established



TESTING GRAPES

California law calls for a certain percentage of sugar in grapes which are to be shipped outside the state. These men are testing an early variety to find out if the grapes are ripe enough to ship. (Courtesy of Sun-Maid Raisin Growers' Association.)

courts of law to settle disputes. By living together under common laws and working together for common aims, the people of each colony developed loyalty to their own institutions.

Because the delegates to the Constitutional Convention in 1787 realized the great difference between the various sections, they decided to permit each state to keep its control over the every-day lives of its citizens.

Only special powers over matters of common concern to all the states were put in the

hands of the new national government. All powers not expressly given to the national government were reserved to the state governments and to the people. As a result of this division of powers, the state governments of our own time charter the cities within their boundaries, pass laws for the county governments to execute, supervise the work of the school districts of the state, make laws regarding taxation and ownership of property, provide for the arrest and punishment

of criminals, regulate working conditions in factories, build prisons and asylums for people unable to care for themselves, and establish such other laws and practices as the needs of the people demand.

As time has passed, these provisions have proved of great value to the nation. Each state from Maine to California is solving its own local problems in its own way. Nearly every state has made special regulations governing education and industry; and of course these regulations are the result of local conditions. For example, California, Arizona, Idaho, and the other arid states have made numerous laws about water rights. These laws would be unnecessary in Maryland where every pasture is watered by a brook or spring. Likewise, the mining laws of Colorado do not fit conditions in Illinois and Pennsylvania. The educational laws of Wisconsin or Michigan would bring great perplexity to the people of Louisiana or Mississippi. The cattle industry in Texas, and the raising of fruit in California, and of wheat in the Dakotas, all have their effect upon the laws of these states. If one central government tried to care for all the local interests of the communities of our vast nation, great confusion would result. It is much better to have the government of the state and its subdivisions in control of all those things which touch the daily lives of the citizens.

1. Do the people in your state form a community distinct from the people in neighboring states? If so, what is the reason for this community consciousness?
2. Are the people of your neighborhood loyal to their state? If so, in what ways is this loyalty expressed? Do you know any people from other states who are extremely proud of the state from which they have come?
3. What forces help the people of a state to develop loyalty to their own state? What forces tend to make such loyalty disappear? Which set of forces was stronger in Washington's administration? At the present time? Why?

2. The state constitution is the legal basis of the state government.

After the Declaration of Independence in 1776, the Continental Congress, the central authority of that time, advised each colony to provide for its own local government. Some of the colonies made the necessary changes in their colonial charters and adopted them as their state constitutions. Other colonies called constitutional conventions which produced entirely new documents. In the main, however, the new state constitutions were very similar to the old colonial charters. The main difference was that the officials who had been appointed by the English government under the colonial charters were now elected by the people or appointed by the legislature under the state constitutions. The new constitutions put all the control of the community's affairs into the hands of the people or their representatives, whereas, hitherto, part of the control had been in the hands of the British government.

When the United States government was first instituted there were thirteen states. Since then others have been added until now there are forty-eight. The Federal Constitution placed the admission of new states under the control of Congress, but there has been no law requiring any given area or population. As a rule, an area has been organized as a territory before it seeks admission into the Union. The usual method of admitting a new state has been as follows:

1. Congress passes an enabling act under which the people of the territory have the right to choose delegates to a constitutional convention.
2. The delegates draw up a constitution and submit it to the people.
3. When accepted by the voters, it is sent to Congress for approval.
4. When Congress approves, the President issues a proclamation declaring the admission of a new state.
5. As a symbol of the admission of a new state to the Union, an additional star is added to the flag.

Thus Congress treats the territory seeking to become a state somewhat the same as a state treats a city which is seeking a new charter.

Although there are great differences in the details of the various state constitutions, they all include certain fundamental statements, namely:

1. Article I usually defines the boundaries of the state. In the region west of the Mississippi, states have been carved out of the great plains following the lines of the Government Survey. Notice Colorado, Wyoming, Nebraska, Kansas, the Dakotas, and Montana.
2. Article II is usually a Bill of Rights, a statement of the rights of the people to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Such articles provide for freedom of religious worship, freedom of speech and of the press, the right of trial by jury, the right of security against unreasonable searches and seizures of property, the right of peaceful assemblage, freedom of elections, right of appeal to the courts for redress of injuries, and similar fundamental rights of free citizens.
3. Then usually follows a series of articles dealing with the framework of the government. All the states have provisions for an elected governor, a legislature composed of two houses, and a system of courts.
4. Every constitution contains a series of articles dealing with education, the state militia, taxation, public debts, suffrage, corporations, amendments to the constitution, establishment and control of state institutions, and many other items of local concern.
5. Attached to the constitution, but really not a part of it, is usually a section called the Schedule. It provides for submitting the constitution to the vote of the people, and for making the changes in the conduct of the government for which the new constitution calls.

When the people of a state vote upon a constitution, they are taking a direct part in the making of law. They are following the traditions of the New England town meeting. Only their numbers and the distances to be traveled prevent them

from meeting in one place. Just as the people have the final voice in the adoption of their state constitution, so they also have the final voice in amending it. Therefore, no changes are valid unless they are submitted to the people for approval.

1. Examine a copy of your state constitution. Is it divided into general sections such as those outlined above? If so, what part of the entire document is devoted to each section? If not, what is the plan of your constitution?
2. Read the article which is your state Bill of Rights. Why are such articles now included in state constitutions? If there were no such statements as a part of the constitution do you think the government would try to take any of these fundamental rights away from the citizens? Why, or why not?
3. How many constitutions has your state had? When was the last one adopted? When your state was admitted into the Union, what was its population? What changes have taken place in the industries of your state since it was admitted into the Union? Do you see special reasons for changing a state constitution as the local industries develop? If so, what are they?

3. The legislature is the lawmaking branch of the state government.

Every state constitution provides for a legislature of two houses, the senate and the house of representatives, although these designations are not invariably used. Members are chosen by popular vote from divisions of the state usually called senatorial districts. As a rule, these districts follow county lines. For example, if a state had fifty counties, all approximately of the same population, each county would probably be a senatorial district. Then there would be fifty members of the state senate, one from each district probably elected for a term of four years, and there would probably be three times fifty, or one hundred and fifty, members of the state house of representatives, three elected from each district probably for terms of two years. Very few states are fortunate enough to be able to solve their problem of senatorial districts

as easily as this example indicates. Usually some senatorial districts contain three or four counties, while other senatorial districts in populous regions are small parts of counties. In nearly all the states the term of a senator is twice as long as that of a representative, and there are usually three times as



THE CAPITOL AT SACRAMENTO

Both houses of the state legislature hold their sessions in this building. Here also are located the offices of the Governor and of others engaged in the tasks of state government. (Courtesy of San Francisco Chamber of Commerce.)

many members in the house as in the senate. The division of the state into senatorial districts is everywhere in the hands of the legislature.

Because state governments control life in every field of activity, state legislatures must consider a large number of proposed laws, or bills. For example, during a recent session of the legislature in a Western state, nearly twenty-four hundred bills were introduced. These included proposals to replant forests, to reclaim land by drainage or irrigation, to

give special privileges to veterans of the World War, to grant new charters to cities, to revise tax laws, to enforce the Eighteenth Amendment to the national Constitution, to improve the public schools, to extend the system of state highways, and to safeguard workers in dangerous industries.

1. Why do senatorial districts of a state usually follow the lines of the counties?
 2. Who represents your senatorial district in your state senate? In your state house of representatives? When were these men elected? When will their terms expire?
 3. When we were studying the American Federation of Labor, we saw that voting power is in the hands of occupational groups. Could this principle be applied satisfactorily to our state governments? Explain your answer.
- 4. The process of enacting bills into laws protects the people against hasty and unwise legislation.**

So important a part of lawmaking takes place in the committees of the senate and the house of representatives that the life of a state legislator is crowded with committee meetings. Each member of the legislature in most states is on six to nine committees which range in size from three to twenty-one members. Among the most important committees are those of finance, education, corporations, municipalities, county government, the courts, labor, agriculture, and manufacturing. Meetings of these committees are held at scheduled times in stated places.

Let us suppose the purpose of a bill is to require local school boards to construct fireproof stairways in all school buildings. A member of the legislature, a senator, for example, makes a draft of his bill, or he presents his idea to the Legislative Counsel Bureau whose duty it is to frame bills for members of the legislature. In typewritten form it is placed in the hands of the secretary of the senate, and is given a number. If it is the fifth bill introduced it will be known as senate bill number five. Its title will then be read. This constitutes the "first

reading." It is immediately referred to the committee on education. This committee considers the bill at a scheduled time when its friends and enemies may appear to defend or to oppose it. If the committee considers that the bill does not fit conditions in the state, it reports an unfavorable opinion to the senate. In this way the bill may be "killed." On the other hand, the committee may not see fit to give any report. If the bill is "smothered in committee," it is just as "dead" as if it had been discussed openly and defeated. Then, again, the committee may report favorably without recommendations, with suggested amendments, or it may present a substitute measure. Then a printed copy of the bill and the committee's action is placed at the bottom of the file of similarly treated bills. When it is reached, its title is read, and the recommendations of the committee are pointed out. By a *viva voce* vote its number is placed at the bottom of the "third reading" file. This completes the second reading. When it comes before the senate for the third reading, its title is read and debate is in order. It is thoroughly discussed by interested senators, is amended if necessary, and is voted upon. If the bill receives a majority of the votes of senators present, it is sent to the house where it goes through the same process of action in the committee on education and on the floor of the house. If the house wishes to make amendments, the bill is returned to the senate for its approval. Sometimes it is necessary for both houses to appoint members of a joint committee to come to some decision about the final form of the bill. The recommendations of such a committee are usually followed. After the bill has been passed upon favorably by both houses, it is signed by the president of the senate and speaker of the house and submitted to the governor. While he is considering the bill, its friends and enemies have a third chance to appear in its defense or opposition. If the governor signs the bill, it becomes a law. If he vetoes the bill, he sends it back to the legislature with his objections in writing. It then receives further consideration, and if its friends can secure the number

of votes required by the state constitution, the bill becomes law in spite of the governor's veto. The object of all these delays is to protect the public against hasty action.

1. When was the last session of your state legislature held? Consult newspaper files and find out what important bills were made laws. If possible, find out what the session cost the tax-payers. Was it worth the money? Why, or why not?
2. Consult your roster of city, county, and state officials. It probably gives a list of the committees in both houses of the last legislature. On what committees did your representatives serve?

5. The governor is the chief executive of the state.

Every state constitution provides for a governor. In some states his term of office is four years and in others it is two years. In the section on the legislature we saw what an important part the governor may play in protecting the people from unwise legislation. The governor also has the right and duty to address the opening sessions of the two houses of the legislature, to lay before them conditions as they exist in the state, and to recommend certain types of legislation. If the governor has strong supporters in both houses, his advice will be followed. However, the legislature is not bound to pay any attention to his recommendations. If the legislature is not in session and there is urgent need of certain laws, the governor has the power to call an extra session and to present his views. During the World War many governors called extra sessions to have laws made for protecting property against attacks of aliens, and for assisting the national government in the registration of men of draft age, and in the conduct of campaigns for selling Liberty Bonds and saving food.

Aside from his connection with the legislature, the governor usually has several other important obligations to the people of the state. In most states he has the power of pardoning persons who have been convicted of crime by the state courts.

In every state he has the power to appoint many subordinates, usually with the approval of the state senate. He opens fairs, makes speeches at the dedication of public buildings, is an honored guest at celebrations and public meetings, and is asked to represent his state at conferences on questions of public policy.



THE CAPITOL OF UTAH AT SALT LAKE CITY

The legislature of Utah meets in this building. The Governor and other officers conduct the affairs of their state here. (*Courtesy of Salt Lake City Chamber of Commerce.*)

Associated with the governor in the executive department are several other elective officials, usually the lieutenant-governor, the secretary of state, the state auditor, the state treasurer, the attorney-general, the adjutant-general, and the state superintendent of schools. These officials are not responsible to the governor for the conduct of the state's affairs, but to the people who elected them. Formerly, the only way in which they could be called to account during their term of office was by impeachment proceedings in the state

legislature. Now, the people in progressive states have the power to recall state officials.

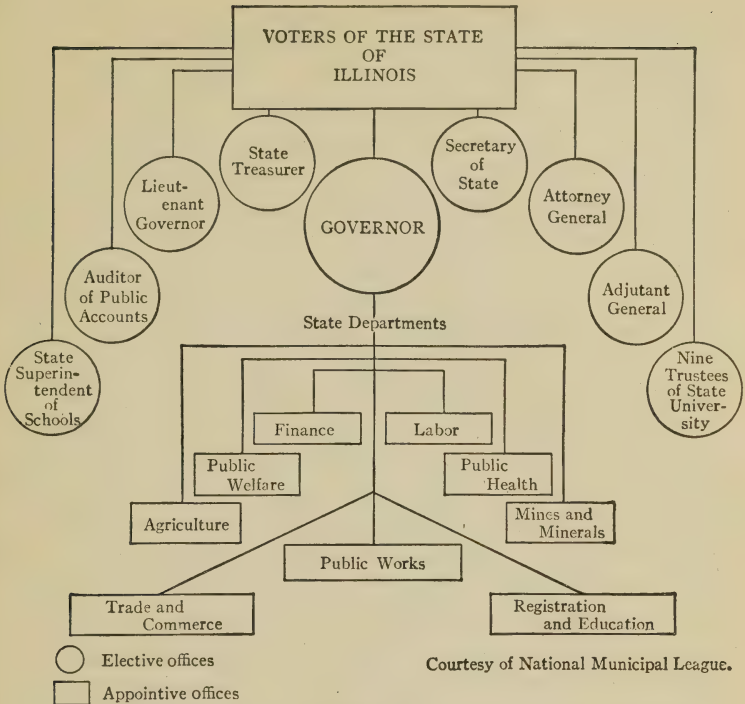
As the scope of state government has broadened the state legislatures have established boards, commissions, bureaus, and departments subject to the control of the governor. The number of these executive departments has increased rapidly in every state. Because activities of different boards working in the same field have not been carefully defined, and because the number of boards has been excessive, administration of institutions in nearly every state in the Union has been extravagant, inefficient, and wasteful.

1. Who is the present governor of your state? When was he elected? How long is his term? What powers does the state constitution give to the governor?
2. What other executive officers are provided for in your state constitution? How long are their terms and what are their qualifications and duties? Who are the men now holding these positions? To what political parties do they belong?

6. The Illinois plan increases the governor's responsibility.

In Illinois, in 1914, there were separate boards for each of the state penitentiaries, for each of the state reform schools, and for each of the state normal schools. There were half a dozen boards dealing with agriculture and about twenty separate labor agencies, each one practically independent of the others. Altogether there were over one hundred separate boards and commissions, a condition which made any adequate control by the governor impossible.

Under the leadership of Governor Lowden this board system was reorganized. Now there are nine executive departments. At the head of each is a director, appointed by the governor, and directly responsible to him, with power to make regulations for his own department, for the conduct of his employees, and for the performance of their work. The accompanying chart shows the present organization of the executive department of the State of Illinois.



Courtesy of National Municipal League.

ORGANIZATION OF THE GOVERNMENT OF ILLINOIS UNDER THE CIVIL ADMINISTRATION CODE OF 1917

Some people think that all the executive officers, like the state treasurer, attorney-general, etc., should be appointed by the governor, and should be directly responsible to him. What do you think of this idea? Give advantages and disadvantages.

7. The state has an elaborate system of courts.

In our study of local government in townships and counties we saw that the people of each township elect justices of the peace. The courts conducted by these justices are the lowest courts in the state system. They handle disputes between individuals which involve small amounts of money and cases of violations of the law which are punishable by small fines

or by short terms in jail. For example, people who run their automobiles on highways outside of incorporated cities faster than the state law permits are tried and fined in courts conducted by justices of the peace. If such violation of the law takes place in an incorporated city, the automobilist will be tried before a city magistrate whose court is on the same general level as the justice's court. Where there is more than enough work in one township for one justice, more are elected. Then the work is divided so that some justices handle only civil cases, that is, disputes between individuals, and other justices handle only criminal cases, that is, infractions of the law.

Next higher than these courts of the justices and of the magistrates stand the county courts. If a man feels that he has not been justly treated in the lowest state courts, he may appeal his case to the county, or superior court. Other cases of a more serious nature are brought directly to the county, or superior courts. In superior courts there is usually a trial of the case by a jury of twelve men, and the judge is usually more experienced in matters of the law than the justice or the magistrate of the lower courts. In civil cases the jury decides on the facts in the case and states the amount of damages one citizen must pay another. In criminal cases it is the business of the jury to decide on the facts on the basis of the evidence furnished by the witnesses. The judge decides upon all questions of the law and instructs the jury. In all criminal cases the community is the injured party, and therefore, it prosecutes the suspected criminal through a regularly elected public official called a district attorney, a prosecuting attorney, or a state's attorney, according to local custom. He is one of the most important county officers, for in his hands rests the prosecution of those members of the community who commit offenses against the laws of the state.

A large number of cases are brought before the county courts by the action of the grand jury. The grand jury is a group of citizens usually selected by the judges of the county

courts, and varies in number from twelve to twenty-three, according to the laws and customs of the various states. Its sessions are usually secret. Before it the district attorney brings evidence against persons suspected of unlawful conduct. It is the duty of the grand jury to decide whether there is sufficient evidence to warrant a trial. If so, an "indictment" is brought against the suspected person, and the case is turned over to the county courts for trial by jury as outlined in the preceding paragraph. Sometimes grand juries do not wait for district attorneys to submit evidence, but conduct investigations for themselves. Such investigations are usually the result of some serious and open violation of the law.

The constitutions of some states provide for appellate courts. The work of these courts in most states consists in hearing cases appealed from the county courts. As a rule these intermediate courts are established only where there is such a large number of appealed cases that the supreme court of the state is not able to handle them.¹ Cases may be appealed for various reasons best understood by skilled lawyers. Usually the lawyer in the case must show that there has been some serious mistake made either in the charge brought against his client or in the judge's interpretation and application of the law.

The constitutions of all the states provide for a supreme court. Its work is usually of three kinds. First of all there are the civil and criminal cases appealed to it from the lower courts. Then, it considers applications for such writs as habeas corpus. In most states there is no appeal from its decisions unless the lawyer conducting the prosecution or the defense can show that there is some federal law involved. Then the case is appealed to the federal courts. The third and most important duty of the supreme court of the state is to decide upon the constitutionality of laws passed by the state legis-

¹ Variation to this rule is found in some states; for example, New York, where the Court of Appeals is a higher court than the supreme court. Appeals from the decisions of the state supreme court may be made to the Court of Appeals.

lature. The question of constitutionality may come up in any court in the state system; but such cases are usually appealed to the supreme court of the state for final decision. Any law of the legislature becomes invalid if the supreme court of the state reports unfavorably upon it. In this sense the permanence of our laws is determined by our courts rather than by our legislatures. If the state supreme court is not progressive and impartial, it can undo all the progressive work of the governor and the legislature. On the other hand, the state supreme court labors diligently to protect the people from the evils of unwise legislation.

1. What is a writ of habeas corpus?
2. What is a misdemeanor? In what ways is it different from a crime? (Look up these words in your dictionary.)
3. What provisions does your state constitution make for courts and judges? Who are the judges in your community? Over what courts do they preside?
4. In nearly all the states the judges in state courts are elected by the people. In the early days of our nation state judges were appointed by the governor with the approval of the state senate. Which plan do you think the better? Why?

3. A state has power to raise revenue by taxing almost all objects within its boundaries.

Under our national constitution all the states are forbidden to tax imports and exports as well as goods in transit on railways, canals, steamships, or highways. Also, the states have no power to tax the property of the federal government situated within their boundaries. Therefore all post-offices, all lighthouses, all salaries of federal officials, all metals in United States mints, and all revenues of the federal government are not subject to taxation by state governments or by any governments of subdivisions of states.

In many states the legislatures have adopted the policy of raising revenues for the support of the state government by means other than the taxation of real estate. The feeling is

that general property taxes are needed for the support of the local governments. Therefore these states tax corporations. The amount of the tax is usually a certain per cent of the total receipts, except in the case of banks where it is a certain percentage of the capital stock. So large are the returns from this corporation tax that it supplies one third to one half of the revenues for the support of the activities of certain states. Another profitable source of income is the inheritance tax, a tax imposed upon the property of deceased persons when it passes by inheritance or will to others. This tax is usually progressive; that is, the larger the inheritance, the larger the *rate* of the tax. Also, state officers, like township, county, and city officials, collect fees for special services rendered to individuals. Most states collect licenses from such residents as automobile owners, and those who wish to enjoy the hunting, trapping, fishing, or camping facilities which the state's natural resources offer. In some states the hospitals, reform schools, prisons, and other state institutions are so organized that their inmates spend part of their time in working at some profitable occupation. Returns from the sale of their products fall far short of supporting the entire burden of the institutions, but they are nevertheless a valuable source of revenue.

The general aim in taxation for the support of the state government is to reach those kinds of wealth which are not heavily taxed by the local governments. However, if other sources of revenue fail to meet the expenses of the state government, a tax may be imposed by the legislature on all taxable property in the state.

1. Obtain a report of your state treasurer. List all the sources of income with amounts from each source and figure per cent of entire revenue furnished by each kind of tax.
2. Make a diagram showing clearly how many cents of each dollar collected by the state was derived from each source.
3. Compare this chart with similar diagrams made for city and county revenues.

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
Lesson B-18 — "How State Laws are Made and Enforced."
2. Hughes, *Community Civics*. (Allyn & Bacon.)
Chap. xvii — "Our State Governments."
3. Dunn, *Community Civics and Rural Life*. (Heath.)
Chap. xxvi — "Our State Governments."
4. Dawson, *Organized Self-Government*. (Holt.)
Chap. xxi — "The Courts and the Law."
Chap. xxii — "Criminal Law."
Chap. xxiii — "Legislation."
Chap. xxvii — "Organizing the State Government."
Chap. xxix — "The State's Expenses."
5. Hill, *Community Life and Civic Problems*. (Ginn.)
Chap. xviii — "State Government."
6. Roosevelt, *An Autobiography*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. viii — "The New York Governorship."
This chapter tells how Roosevelt happened to be nominated for governor, how he clashed with professional politicians and triumphed over them, and how his work helped to interest the people of New York State in improving their state government.

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. *National Municipal Review*, Supplement, November, 1920. Mathews, "Administrative Reorganization in Illinois."
This supplement to the *Review* brings together the materials presented in many shorter articles on this subject. It is a splendid study in recent developments of the machinery of state government.
2. Wilson, *Constitutional Government in the United States*. (Columbia University Press.)
Chap. i — "What is Constitutional Government?"
Chap. vii — "The States and the Federal Government."
3. Bryce, *The American Commonwealth*. (Macmillan.)
Vol. i, chap. xxxvii — "State Constitutions."
chap. xl — "State Governments: the Legislature."
chap. xli — "The State Executive."
chap. xlii — "The State Judiciary."
chap. xlvi — "State Politics."

These chapters are full of interesting detail which no person interested in state government can fail to appreciate.

CHAPTER XXV

OUR NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

EVERY American citizen is a citizen not only of the state in which he resides but also of the United States. Our national government is not a government over the states which compose the Union, as the states are governments over their counties and towns, but is directly over the people themselves. In this chapter we shall see what is the organization of our national government, what services it performs for us, and how we control its activities.

Problems for you to investigate

OUR POSTAL SYSTEM

I. The work of carrying the mails.

1. How many classes of mail are there? What articles are included in each class? What are the rates to the public? This information is contained in publications like the *World Almanac*, and is usually posted on bulletin boards in post-offices.
2. What rural delivery routes have been established in your community? Do you believe in rural free delivery of mails? Why?
3. Who is your local postmaster? How was he chosen? How long will he hold his position?
4. How do the letter-carriers and the clerks in your local post-office obtain their positions? How long will they hold them? Why?

II. The postal savings system.

1. Is your local post-office a postal savings bank? If so, appoint a committee to get blanks used for deposits, withdrawals, etc. Have you a postal savings account? Do you know any one who has one? If so, ask him why he preferred to deposit his money with the post-office rather than with a regular commercial savings bank.

III. Money orders.

1. Appoint a committee to get application blanks for foreign and for domestic money orders. Be sure you know how to fill out such applications.
2. What other agencies sell money orders? Why do we have this duplication of effort?

IV. After you have learned all you can about your post-office, appoint a committee of your class to invite your postmaster to speak to your group or to conduct you through the main post-office in your town or city.

V. The Post-Office Department at Washington.

1. Who is Postmaster-General now? How did he get his position? Why is he a member of the President's Cabinet?
2. What are the chief bureaus in the Post-Office Department? What is the work of each? (*The Congressional Directory* gives a detailed account of the organization. Get it from your librarian.)
3. Appoint a committee to get recent reports of the Postmaster-General. Find out what recent improvements have been made in the various branches of the postal service.

VI. The International Postal Union.

1. What is this Union? When was it established? Who is responsible for its operation? (There are numerous magazine articles on this subject. Use *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*.)
2. Appoint a committee of your class to report on this subject.

I. The Articles of Confederation were the basis of coöperation between the American commonwealths during the Revolution.

The history of the American colonies up to 1774 is largely a record of events which brought the colonies into closer coöperation with one another. In 1774 all the colonies but Georgia chose delegates to a convention which we know as the First Continental Congress, whose purpose was consultation on the best means of dealing with the harsh and oppressive measures

of the English king. A second meeting convened in 1775. This Second Continental Congress was the central government during the years of the Revolution. In November, 1777, it adopted the Articles of Confederation which outlined the powers of the Congress and its relationship to the thirteen states.

There were four serious defects in this scheme of confederation. First, it was necessary for nine out of the thirteen states to agree before any important business could be transacted. Frequently and for long periods not more than nine or ten states were represented. Thus practically every representative present had to vote in favor of a measure before it could be put into effect. Also, the Confederation had no chief executive. The second defect was its lack of power. The Congress could not regulate commerce between the states, nor could it levy a low tariff for its own support. Therefore, it had to depend upon donations from the states to meet its obligations. Third, the Articles could not be amended without the approval of the legislatures of the thirteen states. Fourth, the Congress had no power over individual citizens. It was a government over the states, not over the people. All these weaknesses made a new form of national government imperative.

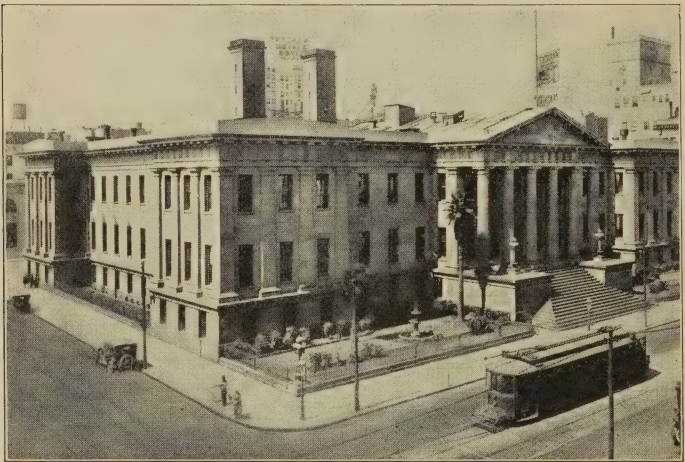
1. Why is commerce between the states in the hands of our national government? What happened when each state had the power to control its commerce with other states?
 2. Would these conditions return now if this power were returned to the states? Why, or why not? Is it at all probable that the states will ever be given power to control their commerce with other states? Why, or why not?
 3. If the Articles of Confederation were so weak, how was it possible for the colonies to win the Revolution?
2. **The Constitutional Convention of 1787 drew up a Constitution which provided for the establishment of a strong central government.**

In the midst of the chaos caused by the weakness of the central government under the Articles of Confederation, the

Constitutional Convention met in Philadelphia in 1787. Among the delegates were such liberty-loving patriots as Franklin, Washington, Hamilton, and Madison. The purposes of the new Constitution are admirably expressed in the Preamble:

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

From their experience with the Articles of Confederation the people had learned that a central government can perform



A UNITED STATES MINT

This is one of the five mints maintained by the national government for the purpose of providing our people with coins. Here the banks exchange the worn-out and disfigured coins which come into their possession for shiny new ones.

none of these functions set forth in the Preamble unless it possesses real power to act. Yet they did not wish to make the national government any more powerful than necessity

demanded. From the beginning it was understood that the state governments were to retain a large amount of power. Section IX of Article I gives a list of powers denied to the United States government. On the other hand, each state had to sacrifice some of its previous power in order to give strength to the new national government. Section X of Article I sets forth in detail the powers denied to the states. Section VIII of Article I gives a detailed list of the powers expressly granted to Congress, every one of which is a necessary function of a national government. For example, the second clause gives Congress the power to borrow money on the credit of the United States. The third clause gives Congress the power to regulate commerce with foreign nations, among the several states, and with the Indian tribes. In the fifth clause is given the power to coin money, to fix the standards of weights and measures, etc. These are the powers which the people of the various states had learned must be held by a central authority.

1. Why was it important for Congress to have the right to regulate commerce between the states at the time when the Constitution was adopted? Is this power as important now as it was then? Why?
2. Why was Congress given the power to regulate the coinage of money? For many years after 1787 the state banks issued bank notes which circulated as money. Why was not the power to make coins also left in the hands of the states?
3. Why does the Constitution prohibit the states from entering into treaties with foreign powers? Was the right of a state to make such a treaty of more or less importance in 1787 than it is now? Why?
4. Why does the Constitution prohibit taxes on articles exported from a state?
5. Read Sections VIII, IX, and X of Article I very carefully. If there are any clauses whose meaning you do not understand, make up questions similar to those given above and present to the class.

3. The powers of the national government have been extended to many new fields.

When the Constitutional Convention outlined the powers of the national government in 1787, it had to take many things into consideration. First of all, the states were extremely jealous of one another because they had not yet learned many important lessons about coöperation for the common welfare. The people were inclined to be more loyal to their state than to the new nation. They had to learn national loyalty by working and sacrificing for the nation as they had worked and sacrificed to build up their states. Second, the large states feared that the small states would have equal power, while the small states feared the domination of their powerful neighbors. Also, the slave states feared that their interests would be injured by association with the free states. Only through one compromise after another was the convention kept together long enough to finish its work.

Since 1787 the people have come to see the folly of state fears, and they have learned to look to the national government to satisfy more and more of their needs. The powers of the national government have been enlarged so much by the changing necessities of the times and by the decisions of the Supreme Court that the members of the Constitutional Convention would have difficulty in recognizing our present national government as the one established by their work. This growth of power has been natural and necessary. As the framers of the Constitution did not intend to produce an ironclad system of government, they made provisions for amending their document in order that new regulations might keep pace with the changes of the future. They also inserted certain provisions which have been expanded to cover new needs. For example, the third clause of Section VIII, Article I, gives Congress power to regulate commerce between states. In 1787 this power prevented any state from levying a duty on goods brought from a neighboring state, and thus helped to develop a spirit of coöperation between the states. Because

of the great changes in our industrial system this power now permits Congress to pass laws for United States inspection of all products which are sold outside the state in which they are manufactured. If the Supreme Court were willing to interpret this clause in its broadest possible sense, Congress would have power to regulate conditions of work in factories and even to oversee the housing of factory workers. Doubt-



THE PACIFIC FLEET UNDER A SMOKE SCREEN

Our national government maintains a fleet in the Pacific for the protection of American commerce and American ports.

less many regulations of this kind would undermine the foundation of the power of our state governments. Another clause which has been used to extend the power of the national government is Clause 18, Section VIII, Article I. It gives Congress power to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying its specified powers into execution. If the Supreme Court decides that a certain law is necessary and proper, it will declare that law constitutional. Under certain conditions, like a state of war, a law, no matter whether it infringes on the power of the states or not, could easily be

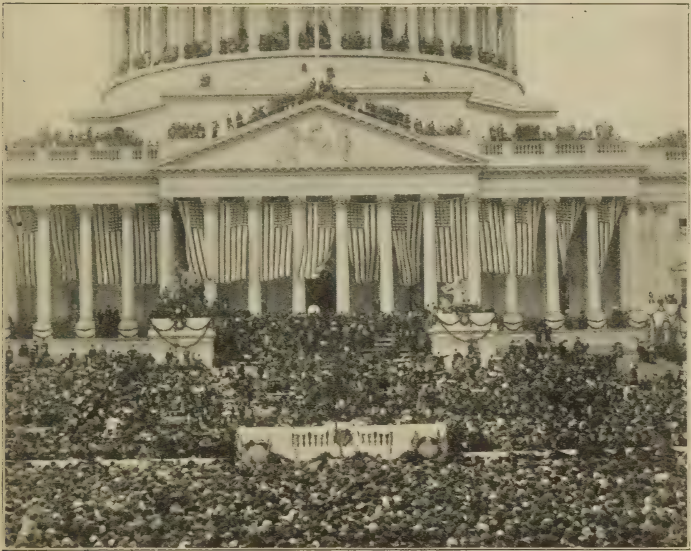
declared necessary and proper. As time goes on and modern methods of communication bring all the states into closer relation with the national government, Congress will probably gain the power to pass many far-reaching laws which would be declared unconstitutional now.

1. Why was it necessary to amend the Constitution in order to prohibit the manufacture, sale, and transportation of intoxicating liquors?
2. Why did the Supreme Court declare unconstitutional the child-labor law passed by Congress which prohibited articles manufactured by children from entering into inter-state commerce?
3. Under what clause of Section VIII, Article I, could government ownership of railroads be declared constitutional? Could government ownership of telephone and telegraph lines be justified in the same way?

4. The President is our national leader.

In our study of political parties we saw the way in which a presidential candidate is nominated by a party convention, conducts a nation-wide campaign, and is the central figure in his party's activities from the day of his nomination in June until the national election in November. When the people vote for a presidential candidate, they do not vote for him directly, but for electors who vote for their party's candidate. Every state has as many electors as it has members of Congress. The framers of the Constitution originally intended that the people should not have any great influence in the choice of their President. The idea was to have each state choose as electors men of standing and influence and to allow only these men to make the choice for the President. At first these electors were chosen by the state legislatures; now they are elected by the people of the states to go through the forms prescribed by the Constitution. Since the electors always cast their ballots for the official candidates of their party, the real choice of the President rests with the people.

Because the President is the only person in whose election the whole nation is interested, he is our great national representative and spokesman. His speeches, especially his inaugural address and his messages to Congress, are printed in the daily newspapers and read from the Atlantic to the Pacific. What the President thinks and says has great influence on



THE PRESIDENTIAL INAUGURATION CEREMONIES FROM THE STEPS OF THE CAPITOL, WASHINGTON, D.C.

This picture was taken on March 4, 1921, the day of President Harding's inauguration. Many thousands of people journeyed from all parts of America to be present at the impressive ceremonies. (Courtesy of Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company.)

public opinion. If the President understands the unspoken ideals of the nation and can clothe them in unforgettable words, he arouses sympathy and affection not only at home, but also abroad. For example, President Wilson's declaration of his famous "Fourteen Points" made him the hero both of America and of Europe. Perhaps no man was ever able to express the war-time ideals of a people to better advantage. For the time he was the embodiment of all that was finest and

most unselfish in American life. Another example of the kind of leadership Americans have come to expect of their Presidents is the action of President Harding in calling the Conference for the Limitation of Armaments. This expressed a great national desire for international understanding, which no other American was in a position to express. Our greatest Presidents have been men of keen insight and wide sympathy who have tried to give real leadership to our millions of people through the length and breadth of our land.

1. The Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution gives the present method of electing the President and Vice-President. Read this Amendment carefully. What do you think of the method? Why do we not vote directly for President as we do for Senators?
2. The fifth clause of Section I, Article II, gives the qualifications for President. Why were such qualifications necessary in 1787? Are they more or less important now? Why?

5. The President is the head of the executive branch of the national government.

The first clause of Section II, Article II, of the Constitution states:

The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

Thus the Constitution assumes the organization of several executive departments to assist the President in carrying out the numerous duties assigned to him in this and following sections. Under President Washington there were only five executive departments: State, Treasury, War, Justice, and Post-Office. Since that time five other departments have

become necessary, namely, the Departments of Navy, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor. Each department has at its head an official, usually called a secretary, who is appointed by the President and is directly responsible to him



THE TREASURY BUILDING, WASHINGTON, D.C.

The Secretary of the Treasury and his subordinates occupy this building. The work of the coast guard, and the thirteen other bureaus listed in the Department of the Treasury on page 398, is directed from offices in this building. (*Courtesy of Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company.*)

for the management of his department. Together these secretaries form the President's Cabinet. The accompanying diagram on page 398 gives a picture of the present organization of our national executive departments and of the duties for which each department is responsible.

1. Does Article II give any definite scheme for organizing the executive departments of the national government? If so, what is it? If not, do you think the framers of the Constitution thought such departments would be necessary? Why, or why not?
2. What powers does the Constitution give to the President? Can you think of any other powers exercised by President

VOTERS OF THE UNITED STATES
through the Electoral College

THE
PRESIDENT
of the
UNITED
STATES

who appoints, with the approval of the Senate, heads of:

DEP'T OF STATE
Political and Economic Information
Affairs of Latin American, Western European, Near Eastern, Far Eastern, Mexican, and Russian people
Passport Control
Diplomatic Service
Consular Service
Foreign Trade Advisor

DEP'T OF JUSTICE
Solicitor General
Assistant to the Attorney General
Assistant Attorney General
Departmental Solicitors
Bureau of Investigation
Superintendent of Prisons
Bureau of Pardons

DEP'T OF INTERIOR
General Land Office
Indian Affairs
Pensions
Patent Office
Education
Geological Survey
Reclamation Service
Mines
National Parks
Alaskan Engineering
Indian Commissioners

DEP'T OF COMMERCE
Census
Foreign and Domestic Commerce
Standards
Fisheries
Lighthouses
Coast and Geodetic Survey
Navigation
Steamboat Inspection Service

WAR DEPARTMENT
General Staff
Coast Artillery
Militia Bureau
Adjutant General
Inspector General
Judge Advocate General
Quartermaster General
Finance
Chemical Warfare
Surgeon General
Engineers
Ordnance
Chief Signal Officer
Air Service
Insular Affairs
War College
War Credits
Coast Waterways
Chaplains

POST OFFICE DEP'T
Assistant Postmaster
Comptroller
Postmasters' Appointments
Dead Letters
Foreign Mails
Railway Mail Service
Stamps
Money Orders
Registered Mails
Postal Savings
Rural Mails
Post Office Service
Correspondence
Air Mail Service
Motor Vehicle Service

TREASURY DEP'T
Engraving and Printing
Public Health Service
Coast Guard
Architect
Comptroller of the Currency
Mint Bureau
General Supply Committee
Register of the Treasury
Farm Loan Bureau
Secret Service
Internal Revenue
Foreign Loans
Bureau of the Budget

NAVY DEPARTMENT
Naval Consulting Board
Judge Advocate General
Naval Operations
Medical Examiners
Engineering
Aeronautics
Navigation
Naval Exam. Board
Naval Retiring Board
Construction and Repair
Medicine and Surgery
Yards and Docks
Marine Corps
Supplies and Accounts
Compensation B'd.
General Board

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
Farm Management
Weather Bureau
Animal Husbandry
Plant Industry
Forest Service
Chemistry
Soils
Entomology
Biological Survey
Crop Estimates
States Relations
Public Roads
Horticultural Board
Publications
Library
Packers and Stockyards
Accounts and Disbursements

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Labor Statistics
Immigration
Children's Bureau
Naturalization
Employment Service
Industrial Housing and Transportation
Women's Bureau

INDEPENDENT ESTABLISHMENTS OF GOV'T
Interstate Commerce Commission
Civil Service Commission
The Panama Canal
Federal Reserve Board
Federal Board for Vocational Education
U. S. Shipping Board
Federal Trade Commission
U. S. Tariff Commission
U. S. Employees' Compensation Com.
Smithsonian Institution
National Academy of Sciences
Government of District of Columbia
Pan-American Union
American National Red Cross
U. S. Railroad Labor Board
U. S. Bureau of Efficiency
Council of National Defense
U. S. Veterans' Bureau
Naval Yards and Stations
Twenty-seven other establishments



Elective offices



Appointive offices

Congressional Directory, February, 1922.

Wilson during the World War which are not included in Section II of Article II? Why did Congress permit the President to extend his power in this way?

3. Does Article II of the Constitution provide for such acts as calling the Conference for the Limitation of Armaments? If so, in what words? If not, what right did President Harding have to call such a conference?
4. Who are the present members of the Cabinet? Look up their records in *Who's Who in America*. Find out what each man had done before he was made a member of the Cabinet.

6. The organization of the executive departments is not systematic.

As the powers of the national government have developed, Congress has authorized many new kinds of activity. For each new activity there has been created a bureau or division in some existing department, or else an entirely new department. Congress has specified in detail just what the powers of the officials in each new bureau and division shall be. These new agencies have usually been assigned to that department whose head saw the need for the new kind of work, whether or not the new tasks could be best performed by that department. It is doubtless for this reason that the Public Health Service is in the Department of the Treasury, and the Bureau of Fisheries is in the Department of Commerce. Because of this lack of systematic planning several disconnected agencies may be working on the same problems at the same time. For example, the Children's Bureau in the Department of Labor, the Bureau of Education in the Department of the Interior, and the Federal Board for Vocational Education, an independent establishment, all are working to promote the best interests of our nation's children. Yet each of the three agencies formulates plans with little regard to the purposes of the other two.

Another defect in the conduct of our national executive business has been the careless and extravagant distribution of funds to the various departments. In response to the popular

demand for economy in administration, President Harding appointed a business expert of high standing as Director of the Budget. After five months' work with various coöperating agencies this man laid before Congress the first national budget ever submitted. This budget gave a list of the obligations Congress must meet in the years 1922 and 1923. The essential work of every department was provided for. Under this plan, if Congress reduces funds for certain departments, the result will mean reduction of government service in that field. On the basis of this scientific budget of expenditures, Congress can pass necessary laws for raising revenue. Thus the money expended will depend not upon haphazard guesses of department heads, but upon the estimates of a business expert. Thus the adoption of a national budget makes for order and system in the executive work of our national government.

1. Why is the Bureau of Markets in the Department of Agriculture? Would it not be better in the Department of Commerce? Why, or why not?
 2. Find as many examples as you can of bureaus in one department which seem to be duplicating the work of bureaus in other departments.
 3. Which one of the executive departments do you think is best organized? Why?
 4. Could the federal departments be reorganized according to the scheme which Governor Lowden used in reorganizing the executive departments of the state of Illinois? If not, why not? If so, make a chart showing the new arrangement.
- 7. Congress is the legislative branch of our national government.**

Congress bears the same relation to the rest of the national government as the state legislature does to the other branches of state government. Like the legislature, Congress is composed of two houses, the Senate and the House of Representatives. Just as the powers and duties of the legislature are defined in the state constitution, so the powers and duties of

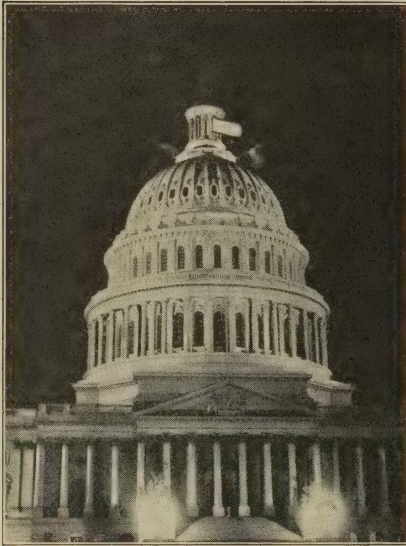
Congress are defined in the national Constitution. The eighteen clauses of Section VIII, Article I, set forth the powers of Congress. In reality these are the powers of the national government, for no other branch can do any work without the consent of Congress as expressed in its laws, or without the money which Congress alone has the right to appropriate. In this sense the President, the executive departments, and the federal courts are under the control of Congress. If Congress should refuse to make adequate appropriations, the work of the executive departments and of the judicial branch would be compelled to stop. However, Congress does not refuse appropriations for executive and judicial work without due reason, because public opinion would not permit it. Above Congress, just as above the state legislatures, stands the great body of the people for whose welfare these assemblies exist.

The *House of Representatives* is the larger of the two houses of Congress. The representatives are apportioned among the states according to population. After every federal census a new basis of representation is established to keep the number of representatives from a state in proportion to its population, and to the population of other states. This policy continually increased the membership of the House until in 1920 it reached the large number of four hundred and thirty-five. Since the returns from the 1920 census are now completed, Congress will decide whether to continue the existing plan, or to adopt some limit to the number of representatives.

The *Senate* is composed of ninety-six members, two from each of our forty-eight states. Even though New York has more than one hundred times as large a population as Nevada, the two states have equal representation in the Senate. The reason is traceable to a serious dispute in the Constitutional Convention in 1787. At that time small states, like New Hampshire and Delaware, feared the domination of large states, like New York, Virginia, and Pennsylvania. After a sharp struggle which nearly disrupted the convention, a compromise was adopted by which all the states were given equal

representation in the Senate, and representation in proportion to population in the House of Representatives.

Since the term of a senator is three times as long as that of a representative, sentiment in the Senate changes more slowly. Every two years a representative who wishes to retain his seat must make a campaign in his congressional district,



THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON ILLUMINED
DURING THE CAMPAIGN FOR THE
VICTORY LOAN

The Senate and House of Representatives meet in this building. (*Courtesy of Henry Keating.*)

while a senator has to conduct a campaign only once in six years. This difference in length of term gives the House a newly elected membership every two years, while only one third of the Senate is newly elected. The other two thirds of the members keep their places and help to preserve the traditions already established. For this reason the House of Representatives is much closer to the people and much more subject to public opinion. Business moves faster in the House than in the Senate. Because of its

large number of members and the consequent volume of its business, the House does comparatively little debating. On the other hand, the senators conduct numerous and long debates. It is unusual for the Senate to pass a resolution to limit the time a member may use to express his ideas, a privilege which gives senators a place in the eyes of the nation which no member of the House can gain. The people do not watch the trend of dis-

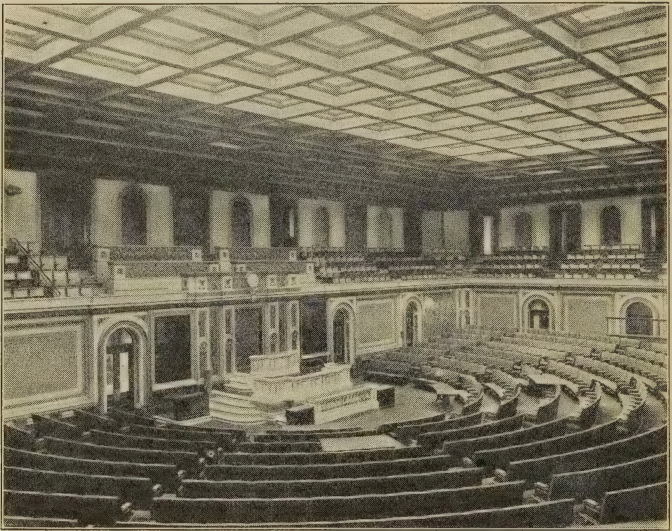
cussion in the House because there is little real discussion there. The newspapers carry many reports of Senate debates because the Senate makes a business of debating. We must think of the House more as a great public assembly of the nation, close to the people, transacting its great volume of business as speedily as possible. The Senate is more like a permanent council of the nation, not subject to every temporary change in public opinion, and conducting its business through lengthy discussions.

The legal term of a member of the House of Representatives and of newly elected senators begins at noon on March 4th of odd years. For example, the members elected in November, 1920, began their legal terms at noon on March 4, 1921, at the same hour that President Harding assumed his presidential duties. The terms of these representatives expired legally at noon of March 4, 1923. In ordinary times there are two sessions of Congress during these two years, one beginning, for example, on the first Monday in December in 1921, and ending during the summer of 1922, the other beginning on the first Monday in December, 1922, and ending on the 4th of March, 1923. Whenever the President deems it necessary, he may call an extra session to consider special needs. In this respect the President's power is much the same as the governor's in his relation to the legislature of his state.

1. The second clause of Section II, Article I, gives the qualifications for members of the House of Representatives. What do you think of these special qualifications? Would you add any more?
2. The third clause of Section III, Article I, gives the qualifications for senators. Answer the same questions as in question 1 above.
3. Sections IV, V, and VI, of Article I, make some special provisions for the Senate and House of Representatives. Discuss each clause separately with a view to understanding why it was put into the Constitution.
4. Is Congress now in session? If so, when did the present session begin? When does it close?

8. Certain committees of the House of Representatives and of the Senate are of very great importance.

Since the Speaker of the House of Representatives was deprived of his power to appoint committees under the rules adopted in 1912, the caucuses of the two great parties have had control of committee memberships. The caucus of the majority party elects by ballot members of a committee on committees, who assign members of their party according to



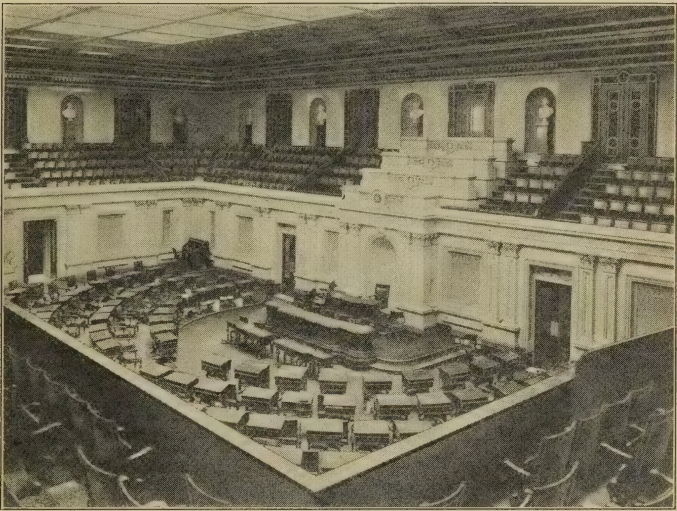
UNITED STATES HALL OF REPRESENTATIVES

experience and ability to places on the twenty or more standing committees of the House. The number of places open to members of the majority party depends upon the size of the majority. The other places are filled by members of the minority party nominated by their committee on committees. After this work of placing members is completed by the two parties, a meeting of the House is called at which the lists of committee members are presented and approved. This method of choosing committees is more democratic than the

old method of selection by the Speaker in use prior to 1912, for it takes power out of the hands of a single man and gives it to several.

The most important committees of the House are:

1. *The Committee on Rules* prepares a set of rules to govern the procedure in the House. From time to time it brings in special rules to decide what business the House shall transact. If a bill is opposed by the Committee on Rules, it



UNITED STATES SENATE CHAMBER

will probably be given little or no time for discussion. On the other hand, if the bill is part of the majority party's program, the Committee on Rules will assign it all the time it needs, and will bring it to an early vote.

2. *The Committee on Ways and Means* considers all bills which propose to raise revenue by taxation or otherwise and bills which have anything to do with the bonded debt of the federal government. As the tariff is one method of raising revenue, all bills concerning the revision of the tariff schedules

are necessarily under the jurisdiction of the Committee on Ways and Means. It is the tariff which gives this committee its great importance.

3. *The Committee on Appropriations* considers all bills which propose the expenditure of federal funds. The important bureaus and divisions of the executive departments must appear before this committee to explain their requests for funds. All general appropriations for the support of all branches of the government also come under the jurisdiction of this committee. The adoption of a budget system brings the work of this committee into close relation with the Director of the Budget.

4. *The Committee on Rivers and Harbors* has jurisdiction over all bills which call for improvement of rivers and harbors.

5. *The Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce* handles all bills dealing with government regulation of railroads, telegraph and telephone lines, oil pipe-lines, express companies, etc. As the work of this committee touches some of the largest industries in our country, members of the House are always glad to be assigned to it.

In the Senate, although there are only ninety-six members, there are frequently as many as seventy committees. They and their chairmen are chosen by the Senate itself by ballot. The most important Senate committees are those on Appropriations, Finance (which corresponds to the Ways and Means Committee in the House), Commerce, Interstate Commerce, Foreign Relations, Post-Office and Post-Roads, Judiciary, Military Affairs, and Naval Affairs. These committees do not have the hold on the business presented to them which the House committees have, largely because the senators take time to debate questions thoroughly on the floor of the Senate, and therefore do not need to rely to such a great extent upon committee decisions.

1. How long has your representative been in Congress? Is he a member of the majority party now?
2. Of what committees is your representative a member? Ap-

point some of the pupils in your class to make a study of the work of your representative's committees. Are any of these committees of any special importance to your district? If so, in what ways?

3. On what Senate committees is each of the senators from your state? (Consult the *Congressional Directory*.) Find out what the work of these committees is.

9. Congress passes laws in accordance with well-defined rules.

In the Constitution are certain provisions governing law-making, chief among which are:

1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives.
2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large upon their journal, and proceed to reconsider it.
3. If after reconsideration two thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that house, it shall become a law.
4. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Aside from these special provisions the process of lawmaking in Congress follows the same lines as in the state legislatures. Bills are referred to their proper committees in both the Senate and the House, come up for three readings, are debated, and referred to the executive for approval. Committee work in Congress is even more strenuous than in the state legislatures because every session of Congress considers an enormous

number of bills. In a recent session, for example, over ten thousand bills were introduced and referred to committees.

1. Read carefully Section VII of Article I of the Constitution. Is there any mention of committees? Why?
2. Why does the Constitution provide that all bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives?
3. What is a lobby? Why are people in general afraid of the influence of various lobbies on senators and representatives?

10. The Senate also performs executive and judicial duties.

In the second clause of Section II, Article II, of the Constitution are defined the President's powers to make treaties *by and with the advice and consent of the Senate*, and to appoint various United States officers *by and with the advice and consent of the Senate*. This shows that the framers of our Constitution intended the President and Senate to be in intimate, confidential relations with each other. They could not, of course, foresee the vast expansion of our country, or the trend of affairs which in our time have made coöperation difficult. While the Senate usually accepts the President's appointments to office, it rejects treaties more often than it accepts them. Especially when the President is of one political party and the majority in the Senate is of the opposite party, treaties are likely to be rejected, the most recent example being the Treaty of Versailles. Almost from the day when the treaty was brought before the Senate, it was most probable that it would not be ratified unless important changes were made.

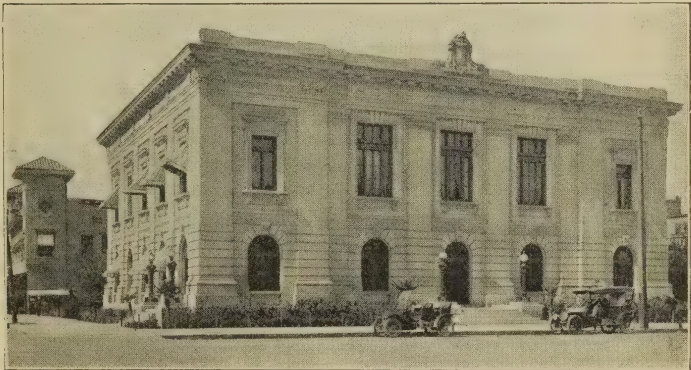
The judicial duties of the Senate are exercised in hearing and judging cases of impeachment of the President, Vice-President, or any civil officer of the United States. These cases come to the Senate after the House has passed the resolution of impeachment and has appointed a committee to prosecute the case. In case of the impeachment of the President, the Chief Justice of the United States is the presiding judge. Two thirds of the senators must vote for impeachment in order to remove an officer from his position. Even in the period of partisan pas-

sion during President Johnson's administration it was impossible to secure the number of votes required for his impeachment.

1. To what political party does the President now in office belong? Of what political party is the majority now in the Senate? Are the President and the Senate on friendly terms? How do you know?
2. Are any treaties now under consideration by the Senate? If so, watch your daily newspapers for reports of their progress toward ratification.

11. The federal government maintains a system of courts.

In our study of state governments we saw that each state has an elaborate system of courts which extends from those of the local justices of the peace up to the supreme court of the



A FEDERAL BUILDING

This building is typical of the federal administrative buildings in medium-sized cities. In it are housed the post-office, the United States marshal, and the federal courts of the district.

state. We also saw that these courts consider cases which arise in the everyday activities of the citizens of the state. The state supreme court also decides whether or not the laws passed by the state legislatures are in accordance with the state constitution. Any justice of the peace has the power to question the constitutionality of a law of the legislature; but the state supreme court has the final decision within its power.

Notice that nothing has been said about the trial of cases in which the parties concerned are residents of different states, or in which some national law has been broken, or in which a United States citizen is bringing suit against a citizen of some other nation. Out of cases such as these arose the need for a system of federal courts. The framers of the Constitution

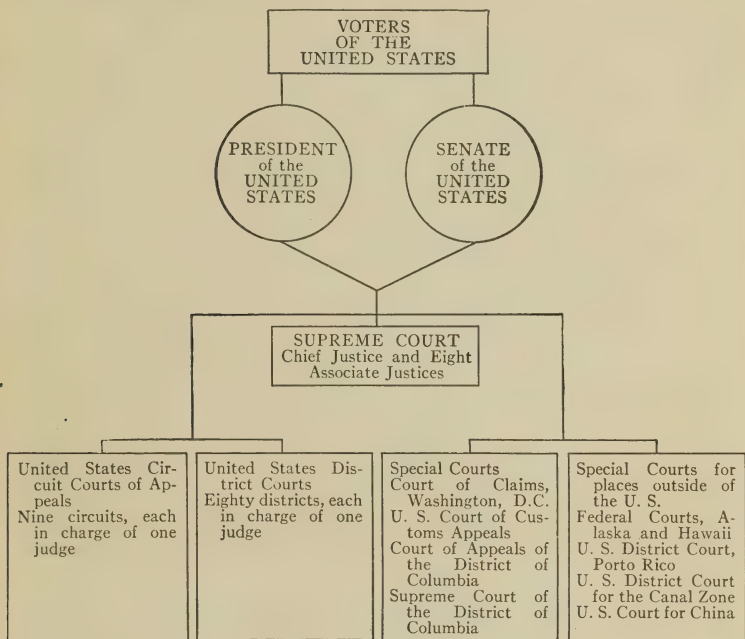


SUPREME COURT CHAMBER

also saw that if the new federal law was left to the interpretation of the courts of the thirteen existing states, there would probably be thirteen different interpretations, each one for the purpose of advancing the interest of the particular state in which the interpretation was made. Evidently such a condition would soon have ended all feeling of respect for the Constitution and for the laws passed by Congress. It was therefore essential that some system be devised which would interpret the national laws in the same way in each of the states, and which would secure fair trials for all citizens whose cases did not come under the jurisdiction of any one state.

Section I, Article III, of the Constitution states that the

judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court and in such inferior courts as Congress may establish from time to time. The accompanying chart gives the present organization of the federal courts.



○ Elective offices
 □ Appointive offices

Compiled from Congressional Directory, January, 1923, and from other sources.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE FEDERAL COURTS

In a certain sense the district courts perform the same functions for the nation as the county courts do for the state. There is at least one district court in each state. It has jurisdiction over all cases arising under federal law, under the Constitution, or under treaties made by the national government. For example, persons who send advertising material for fraudulent schemes through the post-office are violating a

federal law. Hence their cases are tried in United States district courts. For sufficient cause these cases may be appealed to the United States Circuit Courts of Appeals, now nine in number. These courts are called circuit courts because the judges do not hold court in only one place, but follow an itinerary fixed to suit the convenience of the people. Their purpose is to relieve the Supreme Court of hearing the great number of cases appealed from the district courts. They perform the same functions for the national government as the appellate courts do for the state government. For due cause cases may be appealed from the Circuit Courts of Appeals to the Supreme Court of the United States, just as cases coming under the state law may be appealed from the appellate court to the state supreme court. The United States Supreme Court, by the authority of the second clause of Section II, Article III, of the Constitution, has direct charge of all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and cases in which a state is a party. A large number of the cases appealed to the United States Supreme Court are cases which involve the constitutionality of some treaty or of some federal law. In cases of this kind the final decision is in the hands of the Supreme Court. It is the highest court to which appeal can be made.

1. In what places in your state are there United States district courts? Who are the judges? Look up their names in *Who's Who in America*. You may be able to find out some interesting facts about their early careers as lawyers.
2. Watch your local newspapers carefully for reports of the work of the district court nearest your home. Clip any articles you may discover. Classify the case being tried under the various heads mentioned in the first clause of Section II, Article III, of the Constitution.
3. Who are the present judges of the Supreme Court? Watch your newspapers for reports of the cases under consideration by the Court. Look up the names of the judges in *Who's Who in America* with a view to discovering why they were appointed to the highest judicial positions in our country.

12. Political parties play an important part in our national government.

In our study of the House of Representatives we saw how the House is organized on the basis of political parties. The Speaker is the leader of the majority party, chosen by his party caucus, and the minority party also has a leader chosen in the same way. Places on committees are divided between the members of the two parties according to their numbers. For example, the House of Representatives of the Sixty-Seventh Congress, which began its legal existence on March 4, 1921, was composed of 303 Republicans, 131 Democrats, and one Socialist. For every five Republicans there were approximately two Democrats. Therefore the places on committees were assigned in approximately this proportion. The task of assigning these places, as we have already seen, is the work of the committee on committees of the respective parties. Senate leaders, likewise, gain their leadership through their party caucus. It is in these party meetings even more than on the floor of the Senate that senators put their thoughts into words.

The relation of the President to Congress has never been settled by any legal means. When the President is a Democrat and the majority party in Congress is Republican, there may easily be a deadlock on any important question. An example of this lack of coöperation occurred during the last two years of President Wilson's second administration. The President was strongly in favor of ratification by the Senate of the Treaty of Versailles. His Republican opponents worked with all their power to prevent ratification. After the defeat of the treaty, a Republican senator introduced a peace resolution, which was passed, only to be vetoed by the President. Thus the deadlock continued. Meanwhile, the commercial and industrial interests of the nation were hampered by the unsettled conditions. But there are no provisions of the Constitution and no laws of Congress which can compel cooperation between the legislative and executive branches of our government. The political party which exists outside of

and independent of any constitutional provision can induce coöperation only when the President and the majority in Congress are of the same political party; but this force is powerless when they are of different parties.

An example of coöperation between the legislative and executive branches was President Harding's relation to the Sixty-Seventh Congress. The President and large majorities in the House and Senate were Republicans. A few days after his inauguration the President held a White House dinner to which he invited the leaders in Congress. Following the dinner came a conference, at which the President and Congressional leaders discussed the legislative program for the session. This meeting was the beginning of close coöperation between President Harding and Congress, and other White House dinners were held later with the same view in mind. It is important to notice that this kind of coöperation is possible only when the President is backed by majorities of his own party in the House and the Senate. The party organization is the only means we have so far devised of bringing these two departments into close coöperation for the general good of the nation.

1. To what political party does our President now belong? Is he backed by majorities of his own party in the House and Senate? Use recent newspaper reports of the work of Congress to prove your answer.
2. Can you suggest any way in which a Democratic President could be brought into close coöperation with a Republican Congress?

13. The Constitution gives Congress almost unlimited power to raise revenue for the support of the national government.

In only three particulars did the framers of the Constitution restrict the power of Congress to tax the people. First, they provided that "All duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States"; then, that "No direct tax shall be laid except in proportion to the Census"; and finally, that "No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state."

Up to the entrance of our country into the World War, our national government was supported mainly by taxes on imports and internal revenue. Taxes on imports are called "customs taxes." The list of import taxes is called a "tariff." In normal times the tariff yields nearly half of our national income. Though several hundred articles are subject to import taxes, most of the revenue comes from manufactures of



NEW YORK CUSTOM HOUSE

It is imposingly located opposite the historic Bowling Green.

wool, cotton, silk, iron, copper, and tin, and from sugar, fruit, cigars, drugs, and chemicals. These taxes are collected by United States treasury officials called "collectors of customs," who are stationed at ports where foreign goods are brought into the United States. There the importer pays the tariff to the revenue collector. When he sells his imported goods to merchants, he raises the price to include the tax he paid. This advanced price is passed on until it reaches the final purchaser. Thus, when you buy a pound of Smyrna figs, you pay not only all the cost of the figs and the profits of shippers and merchants, but also a tax to the national government. This kind of tax is called an indirect tax because it does not come out of the

pocket of the man who originally pays it, but is handed on to the consumer who usually does not realize that he is paying a tax at all.

Internal revenue is another form of indirect tax. For the purpose of collecting it, our country is divided into districts, in each of which there is a federal collector. His deputies visit distilleries, tobacco products factories, and other establishments, and place stamps upon the articles specified in the law. For example, every package of tobacco or playing cards is sealed with an internal revenue stamp purchased by the manufacturer. The price of this stamp is added to the selling price of the tobacco or cards, is paid by the consumer, and thus returned to the manufacturer.

Because of the extraordinary expenditures in the World War, our government found it necessary to levy direct taxes. Every time we buy a theater ticket, or an expensive pair of shoes, or an automobile, we pay a luxury tax. When the estate of a deceased person passes to the heirs a tax is paid varying with the size of the inheritance. Then there are income taxes. In 1923 every unmarried person with a net income exceeding a thousand dollars and every married couple with a net income exceeding twenty-five hundred dollars a year, was required to pay a tax on any income above these amounts. However, an exemption of four hundred dollars was allowed for each dependent person. For small incomes the tax was four per cent. The rate on larger incomes increased until it reached about 55 per cent on incomes exceeding two hundred thousand dollars. Of a similar nature is the excess profits tax, which is levied on the profits of business concerns. By all these extraordinary means our national government is raising the revenues necessary to defray the expenses of the war.

1. What is the Sixteenth Amendment to the Constitution? Why was it necessary?
2. What is the difference between the tariff and internal revenue taxes? Bring to your class as many kinds of internal revenue stamps as you can secure. Who paid the collector for these stamps?

3. Are people more likely to complain about the direct taxes or the indirect taxes they pay to the national government? Why?
4. Do you know any one who pays no taxes to the federal government?
5. Have any changes been made in methods or rates of federal taxation since 1923? If so, what are they?

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. Franc, *Use Your Government*. (Dutton.)
This book gives good details on the work of the federal government for the people.
2. Rolt-Wheeler, *The Boy with the United States Census*. (Lothrop.)
3. Rolt-Wheeler, *The Boy with the United States Foresters*. (Lothrop.)
4. Rolt-Wheeler, *The Boy with the United States Naturalists*. (Lothrop.)
5. Rolt-Wheeler, *The Boy with the United States Survey*. (Lothrop.)
6. Rolt-Wheeler, *The Boy with the United States Trappers*. (Lothrop.)
7. Guerrier, *The Federal Executive Departments*, Bulletin, 1919, No. 74, United States Bureau of Education.
8. Marshall and Judd, *Lessons in Community and National Life*.
Lesson A-12 — "History of the Federal Departments."
Lesson A-18 — "Local and National Governments."
Lesson B-13 — "The Department of the Interior."
Lesson B-14 — "The United States Public Health Service."
Lesson B-21 — "National Standards and the Bureau of Standards."
Lesson C-12 — "Patents and Inventions."
9. *Literary Digest*, October 30, 1920, pp. 58-60. "Watchful Lobbies and Lobbyists that Camp in Washington."
This article gives a long list of the various lobbies in Washington and discusses briefly the work they are doing.
10. *Literary Digest*, January 29, 1921, p. 13. "To Curb the Pestiferous Lobbyist."
This article reviews attempts to discourage special interests from establishing and maintaining lobbies.
11. *Saturday Evening Post*, August 21, 1920. Parsons, "Foreign Trade."
This article tells what the federal government has done to get foreign trade, what other countries are doing, and what the author thinks we ought to do.
12. *Saturday Evening Post*, November 20, 1920. Bisbey, "Let's Talk It Over."
This article suggests ways and means by which Congress and the President might cooperate to better advantage.
13. *Saturday Evening Post*, November 13, 1920. Lowry, "As you Like It."
Mr. Lowry discusses the organization of the federal departments and the need for reorganization.
14. Roosevelt, *An Autobiography*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. x — "The Presidency."
In this chapter Roosevelt tells us of some of the problems and difficulties which come to our Presidents in the conduct of our national affairs.

15. Fowler, *Starting in Life*. (Little, Brown & Co.)
 Pages 213-25 — "The Army."
 Pages 226-34 — "The Navy."
 These two articles tell of the duties, advantages, and disadvantages of the United States soldier and sailor.
16. Thayer, *George Washington*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
 Chap. VIII — "Welding the Nation."
 Chap. IX — "The First American President."
17. Brooks, *The Century Book for Young Americans*. (Century Co.)
 The book tells how a party of boys and girls found out many interesting things about our national government while they were sight-seeing in our national capital. It is very easy, though interesting, reading.
18. Husband, *A Year in the Navy*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Bryce, *The American Commonwealth*. (Macmillan.)
 Vol. I, chap. v — "The President."
 chap. ix — "The Cabinet."
 chap. x — "The Senate."
 chap. xiii — "The House of Representatives."
 chap. xviii — "The Relations of the Two Houses."
 chap. xx — "The Relations of Congress to the President."
 chap. xxii — "The Federal Courts."
2. Wilson, *Constitutional Government of the United States*. (Columbia University Press.)
 Chap. III — "The President of the United States."
 Chap. IV — "The House of Representatives."
 Chap. v — "The Senate."
 Chap. vi — "The Courts."
3. Young, *The New American Government and Its Work*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. II — "The President."
 Chap. III — "The House of Representatives."
 Chap. IV — "The Senate."
 Chapters v to XIII — "The Powers of Congress."
 These chapters are similar in general tone to the chapters in Bryce. More attention is paid to the special powers of Congress and somewhat less to the spirit of the two houses.
4. Beard, *Readings in American Government and Politics*. (Macmillan.)
 Chap. x — "The Powers of the President."
 Chap. XII — "The Congress of the United States."
 Chap. XIV — "Congress at Work."
 These chapters are a series of records from courts, of extracts from magazines, the *Congressional Record*, etc. They give a very graphic picture of the national government at work.

CHAPTER XXVI

OUR INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Good citizens have interests which extend beyond the home, to the neighborhood, the school, the town, the state, and the nation, to the people of all races and of all lands. With this world community we are connected by ties of family relationships, for we are all immigrants or descendants of immigrants. To other races and peoples we are bound by debts of gratitude for inventions such as wireless telegraphy and printing, for progress in the arts and sciences, for expression of ideas and ideals in enduring literature, and for the courage that made men eager to explore our land.

At present modern methods of communication and transportation are making it possible for all peoples to share in the benefits of the science, the invention, and the labor of all nations. Trade and commerce have formed a strong bond between us. In this chapter we shall see what our nation is contributing to the actual formation and organization of a world community.

Problems for you to investigate

MAKING A TREATY

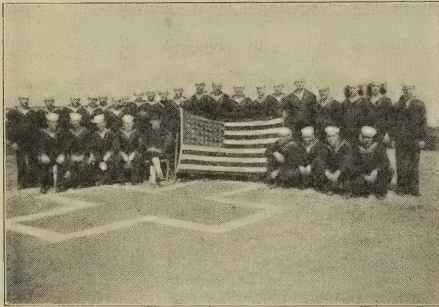
- I. The problem in this study is to discover what methods are pursued by our country and by Japan in formulating international agreements. For this purpose divide your class into sections, one to represent the United States and one to represent Japan. Let the whole class decide what subject the negotiations will cover. The use of the cables in the Pacific is appropriate.
- II. Appoint committees to report on the following:
 1. The work of the President in treaty making.
 2. The work of the Senate in treaty making.
 3. The work of the Secretary of State in treaty making.

4. The work of the officials of Japan who negotiate treaties. Information can be obtained from our national Constitution, from magazine articles, encyclopedias, etc.

III. Hold meetings and conferences between your groups of officials according to the system outlined by your committees.

1. World unity through military conquest is impossible.

The political history of the world has been largely a succession of individual and national attempts to extend national boundary lines and to build up empires by using military force. Men have explored the world with conquests in view. For example, Cæsar crossed the Rhine into Germany to inspire



JACKIES AT MIAMI, FLORIDA, DURING THE
WORLD WAR

Before the Armistice was signed, over four million young men were withdrawn from civilian life to assist our army and navy to carry on the war against Germany and her allies. (Courtesy of Henry Keating.)

the fear of Rome in the people. He crossed to Britain to explore the island and to set up Roman rule. With the same spirit, sixteen centuries later, Sir Francis Drake and Sir Walter Raleigh explored the Americas in the hope of adding to England's glory. Glory was also the controlling motive in Napoleon's career. It was his ambition to make Europe one great state subject to him, the leader of the French. In our own time the idea of world unity through military conquest came to Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany. His attempt to carry out this idea met with disastrous results, as we all know. If history shows anything at all, it certainly shows that world unity based on militarism is an impossibility.

1. In the United States there is a very large number of people from many different countries in the world. In what ways is

this large number of nationalities different from groups of people who are subjects of a militaristic conqueror?

2. Why did not conquerors like Cæsar set up a system of education among the peoples whom they conquered so as to develop common aims and ideals? Why do we regard education as the basis of our national unity? Can you think of any other force which might become the basis of a nation's ideals?

2. America's policy has been one of isolation.

In the earliest years of our Republic the people of New York thought of themselves as citizens of New York rather than as citizens of the United States, and the same feeling was common to the people of the other states. Their local aims and ideals made them feel their separation from their neighbors. There could be no United States in any real sense until the people of the states came to feel that they were not only citizens of Virginia, of Maryland, or of Massachusetts, but also citizens of the United States. Largely because of the rich heritage contributed by the thirteen original commonwealths and the thirty-five later additions, our national government has had power of adjustment and growth.

Nobody understood the serious problem of developing a unified nation better than Washington. He realized that the entire effort of the whole people was needed to make our national existence possible. In his *Farewell Address*, delivered in September, 1796, he cautioned the nation against alliances with European nations. For the people of that time no advice could have been better. We were in the midst of the greatest experiment in popular government ever tried by mankind. France had recently attempted to establish a republic, but was fast developing an autocracy. There was no free nation in the world from which we could draw inspiration for building up our own democratic institutions.

Within twenty-five years after this *Address*, public opinion in the United States had reached a point where the people desired to make a formal statement of their attitude toward Europe. This statement came after the Spanish colonies in

North and South America had revolted and had established themselves as independent republics. Meanwhile, the powerful nations of continental Europe bound themselves together in a solemn compact known as the Holy Alliance. Since the chief purpose of this group was to put down all democratic uprisings, our people feared that it would assist the



WASHINGTON MONUMENT AT WASHINGTON, D.C.

This monument was erected in commemoration of the patriotic service of George Washington. (Courtesy of Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company.)

King of Spain to regain his former American possessions. At the same time, Russia, Great Britain, and the United States were in the midst of a serious dispute over our north-west boundary lines. Therefore in his message to Congress on December 2, 1823, President Monroe outlined our position, which has since been known as the "Monroe Doctrine."

The two essential points of the Monroe Doctrine are that the policy of the United

States is not to interfere in the internal concerns of any European nations, and that it is impossible for European powers to extend their systems of control into any portion of the Western Hemisphere without endangering our peace and happiness. In other words, the Monroe Doctrine stated that the United States did not wish to enter into any entangling alliances with European nations and that the Americas were no longer open to colonization and exploitation by European powers. It virtually promised our protection to the young republics south of us in

case of attack from Europe. In effect it established a league of free republics opposed in aim and ideal to the autocracies of Europe.

Out of the Monroe Doctrine grew the idea of Pan-Americanism. The United States has been the guardian of that idea and has sought to make it a vital factor in North and South America. The idea has been possible because of the protection afforded us by the expanse of the Atlantic and Pacific



THE PAN-AMERICAN UNION BUILDING AT WASHINGTON, D.C.

This building is dedicated to the ideal of the unity of North and South America.
(*Courtesy of Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company.*)

Oceans, and because the principles upon which all the American republics are founded are generally similar. The three Pan-American conferences in 1889, 1901, and 1906 did a great deal to cement friendship between the United States and the Central and South American republics. They also took some important steps toward developing a scheme of international arbitration for the American continent.

1. How long did it take to go from New York to Washington in 1800? How long does it take now? Has this development in

speed of transportation served any useful purposes in our national life? If so, what are they?

2. How long did it take to go from Boston to London in 1800? How long does it take now? Has this saving of time affected our international position to any extent?
3. How fast does news travel now? How fast did it travel in 1800? What effect does this speed of communication have on the development of public opinion?
4. In North and South America we have developed a spirit of friendly coöperation between the nations. Why have not the nations of Europe developed the same sort of spirit?

3. The Hague Conferences established a court for the arbitration of disputes between nations.

The invitations to the first Hague Conference were issued by Czar Nicholas II of Russia in the summer of 1898. For years all the nations of Europe had been spending vast sums of money on preparations for war. In their eyes these preparations were the price of peace. Every nation was eager to have the most perfect instruments of destruction. As soon as a new explosive, or a new kind of gun, or a more powerful warship was devised, the nations provided themselves with the new weapons. Every nation watched every other nation closely in order that no secret preparations along new lines might be made. All this effort was, even in 1898, so costly that the Czar was anxious to discover some means of maintaining peace less costly than the increasing expenditures for national defense. He saw that some form of international agreement was necessary.

The conference suggested by the Czar met at The Hague, the capital of Holland, in the summer of 1899. Out of the fifty-nine independent governments then in the world, twenty-six sent representatives. Twenty of these nations were European, four were Asiatic (Japan, China, Persia, and Siam), and two were American (the United States and Mexico). This widespread representation is significant because it shows that the countries of the world were developing common inter-

ests and common ideals. The day of isolation of any nation was fast passing away. The telephone, the telegraph, the transoceanic cables, the railroad, the fast ocean liners with the consequent interchange of ideas and products of industry, were bringing all the people of the world into direct communication with one another. Nations were beginning to develop an appreciation of their dependence upon one another. They were beginning to see that war and destruction in one part of the world may affect all nations, even those far removed from the actual fighting. Thus the first Hague assemblage marked the dawning of a new day in international affairs.

The first subject under discussion was the limitation of armaments. A member of the German delegation was outspoken against such limitation. Representatives of other nations, especially France and the smaller powers, put forward many arguments in its favor. Because of this serious difference of opinion, the Conference could reach no decision on the question of limiting expenditures for war preparations. The best it could do was to advise the sovereign governments of the world to take up the study of the possibility of such an agreement.

The second subject under consideration was the question of arbitration of international disputes. The Conference established a Permanent Court of Arbitration for the purpose of providing a means of settling disputes for which the ordinary processes of diplomacy could find no satisfactory solution. The membership of the court was a hard problem to solve. Finally the Conference decided that each power represented was to have the right to select four persons of recognized ability in international law for terms of six years. Then, when a dispute arose, the dissenting nations had the right to choose the judges to decide their case. The Conference passed no resolution to make arbitration compulsory. The only accomplishment was that it provided the machinery in case the nations concerned were interested.

In 1907, the second Hague Conference was held. It was

attended by forty-four out of the fifty-seven sovereign states of the world. The chief additions were the republics of Central and South America. There were twenty-one European, four Asiatic, and nineteen American countries represented. Thus a majority of the nations were non-European. This fact again put emphasis on an increasing sense of national interdependence, of the passing of isolation, and of the growing demand for coöperation between nations.

The results of the Conference were not as great as might have been expected. However, the Conference did adopt regulations for conducting war in a more humane fashion, and it defined more clearly certain principles of international law. It urged the restriction of expenditures for military purposes. It also reviewed the work of the Court of Arbitration. Elihu Root, the most distinguished American at the Conference, justified the belief that the world had entered upon an orderly "process of progress" toward peace.

1. It has been said that the purpose of the Hague Conferences was to reduce the expensiveness of war, not to abolish the causes of war. Do you agree? Why, or why not?
2. How do you account for the large increase in the number of American nations represented at the second Conference? Do you think there is any relation between this increase and the growth of Pan-American feeling?
3. Is the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague still in existence? Look up this subject in the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*. You may be able to find some interesting articles and comments.

4. The League to Enforce Peace grew out of the World War.

In spite of the optimistic views expressed after the second Hague Conference, in the summer of 1914 the world found itself in the midst of the most frightful war in all history. Men interested in universal peace came to see that treaties and conferences for the arbitration of international disputes are good, but that in times of intense feeling there is need for some real force to prevent immediate declarations of war.

The program of the League to Enforce Peace contains four principles:

1. Before resorting to arms the members shall submit disputes with one another to an international tribunal, if such disputes are capable of being settled by the ordinary rules of international law.
2. If the disputes cannot be settled on the basis of strict international law, the interested members shall submit their evidence to an international council of conciliation, which shall recommend a fair and friendly solution.
3. If any member of the League wages war against another before submitting the question in dispute to the tribunal or to the council, all the other members shall jointly use both their economic and military forces against the nation that so breaks the peace.
4. The members shall endeavor to codify and improve the rules of international law.

The advocates of this League favored using the international tribunals already in existence at The Hague. In addition they wished to establish the council of conciliation for the purpose stated above. The essential differences between this plan and all others previously suggested is in the third point which obliges all the members of the League to declare war on the nation which violates the terms of the agreement.

1. What has become of the League to Enforce Peace? Look through recent editions of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* and see if you can find any current reports of its work.
2. What do you think of the plan put forward by this League for the prevention of war? Does this plan involve sending American soldiers and sailors to distant places to fight in quarrels in which America is not particularly interested? Why, or why not?
3. In what ways do the plans put forward by the League to Enforce Peace differ from the plans advocated at the Hague Conferences? In what ways are they similar?

5. The League of Nations was established at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919.

After President Wilson reached Europe in December, 1918, he was accorded a welcome everywhere he went such as is the lot of few men to receive. In the eyes of the war-weary Europeans he was the one man able to interpret their longing for peace and to establish a reign of justice among the nations. The American President represented democratic America. His famous "Fourteen Points" had set a new standard in international thinking. These, with their later interpretations, boldly stated that all secret agreements between nations were to cease, that all economic barriers were to be removed, that an equality of trade conditions should be established among all nations, that the day of military power was gone, and that the sea-ways were to be free to all nations. In America these were old ideas. Our aloofness from European affairs had kept us free from most of the vices of secret diplomacy. Since the days of the Monroe Doctrine we had jealously guarded the rights of the free American republics. There was too much real work to be done in America to permit large numbers of men to do nothing but train for war. But Europeans and Asiatics, whose lives had been darkened by secret diplomacy, by tyranny of one nation over another, and by the cost and inconvenience of militarism, looked upon President Wilson as the spokesman of a new age.

An essential part of the peace advocated by the President was a League of Nations. His idea was to have this League as the final court of appeal in international affairs. It was to be the most vital part of the peace settlement. In a powerful speech at New York on September 27, 1918, the President said:

No special interest of any single nation or of any group of nations can be made the basis of any part of the peace settlement which is not consistent with the common interest of all.

There can be no leagues and alliances or special covenants and understandings within the common family of the League of Nations.

All international agreements and treaties of every kind must be made known in their entirety to the rest of the world.

The League which came out of the Peace Conference was a great disappointment to all who had hoped for the realization of the President's ideals. "Any fully self-governing State, Dominion, or Colony" was eligible to membership under the conditions prescribed in Article I of the Covenant of the League of Nations. In other words, the League was not a free combination of peoples such as our own Union, but a detached mass of representatives of governments of all kinds. The Covenant made no provision for control of representatives by the peoples of the various countries. Provision was made for a Council to be composed of representatives of the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, and four other members to be selected by the Assembly. In the Assembly every member state was to be represented and to have an equal voice. Articles III, IV, and V of the Covenant state the powers and composition of the Council and Assembly. Other articles deal with the reduction of armaments, arbitration of international disputes, mandates, registration of treaties, improvement of social conditions, control of existing international organizations, and amendments to the Covenant.

When President Wilson submitted the treaty with its attached Covenant of the League to the United States Senate for ratification, it became evident that the President had lost his hold upon the American people. After months of delay the treaty came to a final vote in the Senate on March 19, 1920, and failed by seven votes to receive the necessary two thirds required for ratification.

At the first meeting of the Assembly of the League of Nations, on November 15, 1920, representatives of fifty-one governments were present. The conspicuous absentees were the United States, Germany, Russia, and Austria. Three days after the opening of the meeting, the Assembly ordered a force of British, French, Belgian, and Spanish troops sent into Lithuania to preserve order in the Vilna district. To many people this act justified America for staying out of the League, for had we been members, they said, our soldiers

might have been doing this kind of police duty in some distant corner of the world. It is interesting to notice that the League has not been able to settle satisfactorily this dispute between Poland and Lithuania over the Vilna district, although the controversy has occupied the attention of the Council many times.

The second meeting of the Assembly was held in the early autumn of 1921. The question of disarmament occupied considerable time. The four big powers, England, France, Japan, and Italy, wanted the whole subject left to the Washington Conference scheduled to meet on November 11, 1921. But the thirty-seven little powers, which were not invited to the Washington Conference, wanted it discussed in the Assembly. As the four big powers were opposed to a thorough discussion of disarmament on the floor of the Assembly, the question received little attention. This incident and others similar to it seem to prove that the Assembly is really controlled by these four powers and is not the democratic parliament of which men had dreamed. The most valuable work so far done by the Assembly has been along lines of discussion of minor economic questions, such as railways, rivers, cables, copyrights, etc. In these realms it is building up a very valuable tradition of international coöperation.

1. In what ways were the problems facing our Constitutional Convention in 1787 similar to those facing the Peace Conference of 1919 in its attempt to formulate ideas on the League of Nations? In what ways were they different?
2. Is our federal government a power over the states or directly over the people? What advantages has each system? Why do you think the League of Nations adopted the plan of being a government composed of nations rather than of peoples?
3. Do you think internationalism will ever destroy nationalism? Why, or why not? Has our federal system swallowed up distinctions between the states? What is gained by lessening these distinctions? What is gained by preserving them?

6. The Washington Conference for the Limitation of Armaments was a step toward world peace and union.

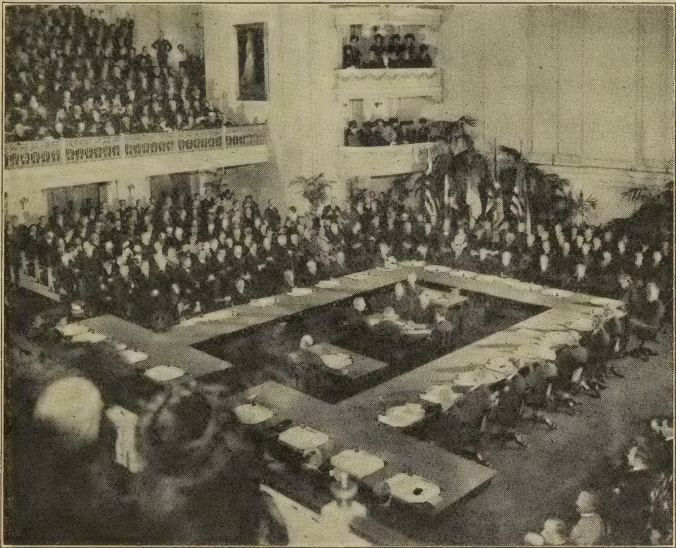
After the presidential campaign of 1920, it became evident that the United States would not join the League of Nations. Yet some sort of responsible participation in world affairs was necessary. All classes of people in America had come to see how closely the interests of all nations are bound together, how intimately the prosperity of France and the other European nations is bound up with our own prosperity, and how vitally we are interested in the freedom and happiness of people in other lands. The World War had broken down our policy of isolation. Now the after-effects of the war were drawing us into the field of world politics again.

The most pressing question before the nations of the world was that of disarmament, or at least limitation of armaments. All the nations were spending vast sums of money for naval and military purposes. France justified her large expenditures on her army by her fear of future German attack. Great Britain justified her large expenditures on battleships by her position as an island empire, entirely dependent upon the outside world for supplies of all kinds. Every nation seemed able to advance arguments for increasing expenditures. Even the United States, the richest and the least warlike of all the nations, spent the major portion of the national income for the year of 1920 on past, present, and future wars. Only a small fraction of our national income was left to provide for all the other work of the national government. Great Britain was the only one of the European nations able to balance her national budget for 1920. France, Italy, Spain, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, and all the other countries were so intent on maintaining their military and naval positions that they fell far short of being able to pay their current obligations. In other words, the cost of preparations for war was bankrupting the world. Everywhere the overtaxed people were objecting to the increasing burden. Everywhere governments were arguing for increased expenditures as the price of national security.

In the special session of Congress called soon after President Harding's inauguration in March, 1921, Senator Borah introduced a resolution authorizing the President to invite the great naval powers to send representatives to a conference on limitation of armaments. Very soon the problem of peace in the Pacific was also included. The first invitations were issued to Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan. China was then invited to participate in the discussion of Pacific and Far-Eastern questions. Later, Belgium, Holland, and Portugal were invited because of their interests in the Far East. By these invitations five powers entered into the discussions on the limitation of armaments. The great purpose of the Conference was not to establish a force which no nation would dare to disobey, but to establish an understanding in which all nations would desire to concur. Nearly all previous plans for greater national security had hinged upon the increase of armaments. This Conference took up the work of the Hague meetings backed by the world-wide necessity for decreasing expenditures, and at the same time securing a lasting peace.

The first session of the Washington Conference was held on November 12, 1921. Secretary Hughes startled the world by laying before it proposals for a greater reduction in battle-ships than even the most ardent advocate of disarmament had dreamed possible. Within three months after the conclusion of the agreement suggested by Secretary Hughes, the United States would have eighteen capital ships, Great Britain would have twenty-two, and Japan would have ten. Replacements were to be limited as follows: The United States, 500,000 tons; Great Britain, 500,000; and Japan, 300,000 tons. The comparative strength of the navies of the three countries was to be kept in the ratio of 5-5-3. Combined with these proposals was the suggestion of a ten-year naval holiday during which no nation was to start the construction of any new ships. On December 15, 1921, the United States, Great Britain, and Japan announced a final agreement on the 5-5-3 ratio of replacement, on the ten-year naval holiday, and on modifica-

tion of Secretary Hughes's plan for the scrapping of capital ships. At the same time a treaty was announced by which these three nations and France agreed to coöperate in maintaining peaceful relations in the Pacific.



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OPENING OF THE LIMITATION OF ARMAMENTS CONFERENCE AT
WASHINGTON, D.C., NOVEMBER 12, 1921

After twelve weeks of work the Conference closed on February 6, 1922. Four treaties and a supplement to the fifth were given final approval at the closing session. The treaties signed were the naval limitations treaty, the five-power submarine and poison-gas treaty, the nine-power general Far-Eastern treaty, and the nine-power Chinese tariff treaty. It was understood that these treaties were not binding on the United States until they had been ratified by the Senate and by the other powers concerned in the treaty. On March 30, 1922, the Senate completed its part of the Conference program by giving its approval to the last of the treaties submitted to it.

A part of President Harding's address delivered at the closing session of the Conference summed up the feelings of the American people on the results accomplished:

It matters little what we appraise as the outstanding accomplishment. Any one of them alone would have justified the Conference. But the whole achievement has so cleared the atmosphere that it will seem like breathing the refreshing air of a new morn of promise.

1. What world conditions made the great naval powers willing to reduce their navies in 1922? Were any of these conditions prevalent at the time of the Hague conferences?
2. Were the common people more or less interested in the Washington Conference of 1921-22 than they were in the Hague Conference of 1907? Why? Talk over this question with your parents. Ask them if they remember any of the circumstances of the Hague Conference.
3. What is the relation of public opinion to the success or failure of an international conference?
What do you think of the conference method of solving world problems? Is it a substitute for an organization like the League of Nations, or is its sphere of activity of a different nature?

READING FOR THE PUPIL

1. *The Literary Digest*.
 - a. December 4, 1920, pp. 9-11 — "The Parliament of Man at Geneva."
This article gives a very good account of the first meeting of the League Assembly.
 - b. January 15, 1921, pp. 7-8 — "Battle-Ships and Bankruptcy."
2. *The Saturday Evening Post*, August 20, 1921, p. 20 — "The New Internationalism."
3. Foerster and Pierson, *American Ideals*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
Part IV — "American Foreign Policy."
This section includes such topics as:
 - a. Washington, Counsel on Alliances.
 - b. Monroe, The Monroe Doctrine.
 - c. Lowell, A League to Enforce Peace.
 - d. Wilson, The Conditions of Peace.
 - e. Wilson, War for Democracy and Peace.
4. Churchill, *A Traveller in War-Time*. (Macmillan.)
The first two chapters of this book portray the experiences of the author

in Great Britain and in France during the autumn of 1917. They show clearly the atmosphere of countries under the terrible shadow of war.

5. Tufts, *The Real Business of Living*. (Holt.)
Chap. xli — "The United States and Other Nations."
Chap. xlii — "War and Right."
6. Storey, *Problems of To-day*. (Houghton Mifflin Co.)
Chap. v — "Our Foreign Relations."

READING FOR THE TEACHER

1. Follett, *The New State*. (Longmans, Green.)
Chap. xxxv — "The World State."
The author presents the view that internationalism is a bigger form of nationalism; not a surrender of nationalism. It is a very stimulating chapter.
2. Bass and Moulton, *America and the Balance Sheet of Europe*. (Ronald Press.)
This book is a study of the commercial interdependence of Europe and America. It is considered one of the most accurate statements so far made on this subject.
3. Wells, *The Outline of History*. (Macmillan.)
Chap. xl — "The Catastrophe of 1914."
Chap. xli — "Man's Coming of Age."
Mr. Wells interprets the World War as the end of the system of Great Powers. He sees the future filled with the possibilities of the unification of men's wills in political affairs.

APPENDIX

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

(Adopted in 1787-88)

PREAMBLE

WE THE PEOPLE of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. THE LEGISLATIVE, OR LAW-MAKING POWER

Section I. Congress in General

All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Section II. The House of Representatives

The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.

No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty-five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

[Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons.] The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be en-

titled to chuse three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New-York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, and South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall chuse their Speaker and other Officers, and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

Section III. The Senate

The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof,¹ for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the expiration of the sixth Year, so that one-third may be chosen every second Year; and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.

No Person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall chuse their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two-thirds of the Members present.

Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of honor, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and punishment, according to Law.

¹ This clause has been altered by Amendment XVII. Clause 2, of course, was of practical application only at the time of the first election of Senators under the Constitution.

Section IV. How Senators and Representatives shall be chosen, and when they are to meet

The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the Places of chusing Senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day.

Section V. Rules of Procedure

Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller Number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such Manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.

Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a Member.

Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one-fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.

Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

Section VI. Compensation, Privileges, and Restrictions

The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States.¹ They shall in all Cases, except Treason, Felony and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any Speech or Debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other Place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the Time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office under the Authority of the United

¹ At present both Senators and Representatives receive \$7500 annually, with an additional allowance for clerk hire, stationery, and traveling expenses.

States, which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no Person holding any Office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in Office.

Section VII. Mode of Passing Laws

All Bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.

Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a Law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such Reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such Cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by Yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten Days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the Same shall be a Law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.

Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of Adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the Same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.

Section VIII. Powers granted to Congress

The Congress shall have Power to lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes;

To establish an uniform Rule of Naturalization, and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;

To provide for the Punishment of counterfeiting the Securities and current Coin of the United States;

To establish Post Offices and post Roads;

To promote the Progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries;

To constitute Tribunals inferior to the supreme Court;

To define and punish Piracies and Felonies committed on the high Seas, and Offenses against the Law of Nations;

To declare War, grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water;

To raise and support Armies, but no Appropriation of Money to that Use shall be for a longer Term than two Years;

To provide and maintain a Navy;

To make Rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and naval Forces;

To provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the Militia, and for governing such Part of them as may be employed in the Service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the Appointment of the Officers, and the Authority of training the Militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive Legislation in all Cases whatsoever, over such District (not exceeding ten Miles square) as may, by Cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the Seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like Authority over all Places purchased by the Consent of the Legislature of the State in which the Same shall be, for the Erection of Forts, Magazines, Arsenals, dock-Yards, and other needful Buildings; — And

To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.

Section IX. Powers denied to the Federal Government

The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person.

The privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.

No Bill of Attainder or ex post facto Law shall be passed.

No capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or Enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No Tax or Duty shall be laid on Articles exported from any State.

No Preference shall be given by any Regulation of Commerce or Revenue to the Ports of one State over those of another: nor shall Vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay Duties in another.

No Money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by Law; and a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time.

No Title of Nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under them, shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any present, Emolument, Office, or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or foreign State.

Section X. Powers denied to the States

No State shall enter into any Treaty, Alliance, or Confederation; grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal; coin Money; emit Bills of Credit; make any Thing but gold and silver Coin a Tender in Payment of Debts; pass any Bill of Attainder, ex post facto Law, or Law impairing the Obligation of Contracts, or grant any Title of Nobility.

No State shall, without the Consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts or Duties on Imports or Exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection Laws: and the net Produce of all Duties and Imposts, laid by any State on Imports or Exports, shall be for the Use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such Laws shall be subject to the Revision and Controul of the Congress.

No State shall, without the Consent of Congress, lay any duty of Tonnage, keep Troops, or Ships of War in time of Peace, enter into any Agreement or Compact with another State, or with a foreign Power, or engage in War, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent Danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. THE EXECUTIVE, OR LAW-ENFORCING POWER

Section I. The President, the Vice-President, and the Presidential Electors

The executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four Years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same Term, be elected, as follows

Each State shall appoint, in such Manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

[The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by Ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an Inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a List of all the Persons voted for, and of the Number of Votes for each; which List they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the Seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the Presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the Certificates, and the Votes shall then be counted. The Person having the greatest Number of Votes shall be the President, if such Number be a Majority of the whole Number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such Majority, and have an equal Number of Votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately chuse by Ballot one of them for President; and if no Person have a Majority, then from the five highest on the List the said House shall in like Manner chuse the President. But in chusing the President, the Votes shall be taken by States, the Representation from each State having one Vote; A quorum for this Purpose shall consist of a Member or Members from two-thirds of the States, and a Majority of all the States shall be necessary to a Choice. In every Case, after the Choice of the President, the Person having the greatest Number of Votes of the Electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal Votes, the Senate shall chuse from them by Ballot the Vice-President.]

The Congress may determine the Time of chusing the Electors, and the Day on which they shall give their Votes; which Day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural born Citizen, or a Citizen of the United States, at the time of the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the Office of President; neither shall any Person be eligible to that Office who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty-five Years, and been fourteen Years a Resident within the United States.

In Case of the Removal of the President from Office, or of his Death, Resignation, or Inability to discharge the Powers and Duties of the said Office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by Law provide for the Case of Removal, Death, Resignation or Inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what Officer shall then act as President, and such Officer shall act accordingly, until the Disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.¹

¹ In 1886, Congress passed the Presidential Succession Act.

The President shall, at stated Times, receive for his Services, a Compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the Period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that Period any other Emolument from the United States, or any of them.¹

Before he enter on the Execution of his Office, he shall take the following Oath or Affirmation: — “I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my Ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States.”

Section II. The Powers of the President

The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States; he may require the Opinion in writing, of the principal Officer² in each of the executive Departments, upon any subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, and he shall have Power to Grant Reprieves and Pardons for Offenses against the United States, except in Cases of Impeachment.

He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by Law: but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.

The President shall have Power to fill up all Vacancies that may happen during the Recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session.

Section III. The Duties of the President

He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures

¹ The first salary act, 1789, fixed the President's salary at \$25,000 a year; in 1873 this was changed to \$50,000, and in 1909 to the present salary, \$75,000. In addition Congress pays certain expenses connected with the White House, and makes other allowances for expenses incidental to the presidential office.

² The President is authorized by Congress, subject to the confirmation of the Senate, to appoint a cabinet, which consists at the present time of the secretaries of the following departments: State, War, Treasury, Navy, Interior, Agriculture, and Commerce and Labor, and of the Attorney-General and the Postmaster-General. Each of these is at the head of an important executive branch of the Government. Cabinet officers, therefore, are assistants to the President. The Cabinet as a whole acts as an advisory body to the President.

as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary Occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the Time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers; he shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed, and shall Commission all the Officers of the United States.

Section IV. Impeachment

The President, Vice President and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for, and Conviction of, Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. THE JUDICIAL, OR LAW-INTERPRETING POWER

Section I. The Federal Courts

The judicial Power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behavior, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services a Compensation which shall not be diminished during their Continuance in Office.

Section II. Their Powers and Jurisdiction

The judicial Power shall extend to all Cases, in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made, or which shall be made, under their Authority; — to all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls; — to all Cases of admiralty and maritime Jurisdiction; — to Controversies to which the United States shall be a Party; — to Controversies between two or more States; — between a State and Citizens of another State; — between Citizens of different States; — between Citizens of the same State claiming Lands under Grants of different States, and between a State, or the Citizens thereof, and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.¹

In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be Party, the supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction, both as to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such Regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by

¹ This paragraph has been modified by Article XI of the Amendments, adopted in 1798.

Jury; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crime shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

Section III. What Treason is and how it shall be punished

Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against them, or in adhering to their Enemies, giving them Aid and Comfort. No Person shall be convicted of Treason unless on the Testimony of two Witnesses to the same overt Act, or on Confession in open Court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the Punishment of Treason, but no Attainder of Treason shall work Corruption of Blood, or Forfeiture except during the Life of the Person attainted.

ARTICLE IV. RELATIONS BETWEEN THE STATES AND THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Section I. State Authority to be recognized

Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.

Section II. Privileges and Immunities of Citizens; Extradition

The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.

A Person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, or other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on demand of the executive Authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.

No Person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, but shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labour may be due.

Section III. Admission of New States; Congress to rule Territories

New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the Jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the Consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules

and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Section IV. States to be protected by the Nation

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government, and shall protect each of them against Invasion; and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic Violence.

ARTICLE V. HOW THE CONSTITUTION IS TO BE AMENDED

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that no Amendment which may be made prior to the Year One thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article; and that no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of its equal Suffrage in the Senate.¹

ARTICLE VI. THE PUBLIC DEBT, THE SUPREMACY OF THE CONSTITUTION, THE OATH OF OFFICE

All Debts contracted and Engagements entered into, before the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the Authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by Oath or Affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States.

¹ It is therefore impossible to reduce the number of Senators from a State with a small diminishing population.

ARTICLE VII. RATIFICATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION

The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.

DONE in Convention by the Unanimous Consent of the States present the Seventeenth Day of September in the Year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and Eighty seven and of the Independence of the United States of America the Twelfth. In Witness whereof We have hereunto subscribed our names.

G^o WASHINGTON,
Presidt and deputy from Virginia

New Hampshire.

JOHN LANGDON
NICHOLAS GILMAN

Massachusetts.

NATHANIEL GORHAM
RUFUS KING

Connecticut.

WM SAML JOHNSON
ROGER SHERMAN

New York.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON

New Jersey.

WIL: LIVINGSTON
DAVID BREARLEY.
WM PATTERSON
JONA: DAYTON

Pennsylvania.

B. FRANKLIN
ROBT. MORRIS
THOS. FITZSIMONS
JAMES WILSON
THOMAS MIFFLIN
GEO. CLYMER
JARED INGERSOLL
GOUV MORRIS

Delaware.

GEO: READ
JOHN DICKINSON
JACO: BROOM
GUNNING BEDFORD jun
RICHARD BASSETT

Maryland.

JAMES MCHENRY
DANL CARROLL
DAN: of ST THOS JENIFER

Virginia.

JOHN BLAIR —
JAMES MADISON Jr.

North Carolina.

WM BLOUNT
HU WILLIAMSON
RICHD DOBBS SPAIGHT

South Carolina.

J. RUTLEDGE
CHARLES PINCKNEY
CHARLES COTESWORTH PINCKNEY
PIERCE BUTLER

Georgia.

WILLIAM FEW
ABR BALDWIN

Attest:

WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary*

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION

ARTICLES IN ADDITION TO, AND AMENDMENT OF, THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, PROPOSED BY CONGRESS, AND RATIFIED BY THE LEGISLATURES OF THE SEVERAL STATES, PURSUANT TO THE FIFTH ARTICLE OF THE ORIGINAL CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I

Freedom of Religion, Speech, and the Press; Right of Assembly

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II

Right to keep and bear Arms

A well regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III

Quartering of Troops, only by Consent

No Soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV

Limiting the Right of Search

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V

Guaranty of Trial by Jury; Private Property to be respected

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual

service in time of War or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI

Rights of Accused Persons

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the Assistance of Counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE VII

Rules of the Common Law

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII

Excessive Bail, Fines, and Punishments prohibited

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX

Other Rights of the People

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X

Powers reserved to States and People

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI ¹*Limiting the Powers of Federal Courts*

The Judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by Citizens of another State, or by Citizens or Subjects of any Foreign State.

ARTICLE XII ²*How the President and Vice-President shall be elected*

The Electors shall meet in their respective states and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate; The President of the Senate shall, in presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted; — The person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. — The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

¹ Declared in force January 8, 1798.

² Declared in force September 25, 1804.

ARTICLE XIII ¹*The Abolition of Slavery*

1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.
2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV ²*Section I. Definition of Citizenship*

All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Section II. How Representatives shall be apportioned

Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the Executive and Judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Section III. Disability resulting from Insurrection

No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of

¹ Declared in force December 18, 1865.

² Changes resulting from the Civil War. Declared in force July 8, 1868.

any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disability.

Section IV. Public Debt of the United States valid; Confederate Debt void

The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Section V. Congress to enforce the Article

The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV ¹

Negroes made Voters

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude —

The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XVI ²

Income Tax

The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII ³

Direct election of Senators

The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislatures.

¹ Declared in force March 30, 1870.

² Declared in force April 8, 1913.

³ Declared in force February 25, 1913.

When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: *Provided*, That the legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

ARTICLE XVIII ¹

The Prohibition of Intoxicating Liquors

After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territories subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

ARTICLE XIX ²

Woman Suffrage

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

¹ Declared in force January 16, 1920.

² Declared in force, August 26, 1920.

INDEX

- Accidents, precautions against, 134.
Adams, John, 326.
Adjustment of labor troubles, employers' plans for, 263.
Admission of new states into the Union, 372.
Advancement in a vocation, what it depends on, 214, 217.
Aerial Mail Service, 179.
Affiliations, of labor unions, city, state, and national, 256.
Agriculture, progress in methods, 229; a basic industry, 274.
Agriculture, Department of, supervision of food supplies, 106; how it helps in the conservation of human life, 110; summary of duties, 281; Forest Service, 152.
Air, pure, and public health, 103.
Air mail routes, 180.
Airplane, the latest means of transportation, 179.
Amendment, Eighteenth, the, 331.
Amendment, of state constitutions, 374.
American Federation of Labor, 257, 258.
Anarchy, defined, 296.
Ancient times, civic beauty in, 189.
Appellate courts, provided by some state constitutions, 383.
Appropriations Committee, in House of Representatives, 406.
Aqueducts, 101.
Arbitration, international, 424.
Arbitration of labor disputes, national government in, 269. *See* Capital and labor, Labor disputes.
Architects, services in city planning, 203.
Armaments, Hague conference upon limitation of, 425.
Armaments, limitation of, 430, 431.
Articles of Confederation, weaknesses of, 389.
Associated Press, the, 74.
Associations, farmers', 288.
Athens, ancient, 189.
Attorney, district, 382.
Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, 170.
Baltimore county-manager plan, 346.
Beautification of city, steps in, 202.
Bills, how enacted into law by state legislatures, 376.
Birth-rate, importance of, 5.
Bonds, of corporation, as investment, 245.
Bosses, political, and city government, 357.
Bryan, William Jennings, 329.
"Bucket brigades," 92.
Budget, city, 365; for local government expenditures, 348; national, 400.
Bureaus, in executive departments of national government, 110, 399.
Buyers, of farm products, 285.
By-products, of large industries, 239.
Cabinet, the President's, 397.
Cable, effect in extending the community, 181.
Canals, built to supplement natural waterways, 169; recent development of, 175.
Candidates, for public office, how judged, 319; how nominated, 331.
Capital, defined as accumulated surplus earnings, 235; needed in modern industry, 236.
Capital and labor, the problem of, 227; adjustment of disputes between, 267.
Capitalization, of factories, 238.
Center, civic, 200.
Central Labor Councils, 257.
Character, how schools develop, 38.
Charity, community, 132.
Charter, city, 353.
"Chest, Community," the, 132.
Chicago, reasons for growth of, 191.
Chicago, plan of city government, 356.
Chief of police, 86.
Children's Bureau, 127.
Chinese tariff treaty, the, 433.
Choosing a vocation, 214.
Church, as help in community education, 59.
Church schools, 49.
Church and community, the, 57-64.
Church and family, relations between, 58.
Circuit court of appeals, United States, 412.

- Cities, in Jefferson's time, 191; growth of, 36, 192.
- Citizenship, defined, 311; family training in, 10; fundamentals of, 318; obligations, 317; rights and privileges, 315; school training in, 37.
- City, advantages of life in, 351; commission government, 359; government of, 350; transportation system of, 197.
- City-manager plan, the, 362, 364.
- City planning, 187.
- City schools, 47.
- Civic beauty, coöperation for, 187.
- Civic centers, in cities, 200.
- Civilization, limited by requirements of group life, 1.
- Class, as a community, study of, 13.
- Clay, Henry, 327.
- Close association, groups involving, 15-19.
- Cloth, manufacture of, 224.
- Collectors of customs, 415.
- Colonies, form of government in, 338; how changed by becoming states, 370, 372.
- Colonists, attitude toward work, 208.
- Commerce, interstate, regulation of, 392.
- Commerce (Interstate and Foreign) Committee in House of Representatives, 406.
- Commission, main ideas in city government by, 359, 362.
- Commission merchants, relation to farmers, 286.
- Committees, Congressional, 404.
- Communicable diseases, preventing the spread of, 109.
- Communication, 162-84; how systems are maintained, 182.
- Community, study of, 13.
- "Community Chest," the, 132.
- Community interests, guarded by good newspapers, 72.
- Community spirit, participation in, 16, 351.
- Compromises, of the Constitution, 392.
- Confederation, Articles of, 388.
- Congress, the legislative branch of our national government, 400; powers defined by Constitution, 391.
- Conquest, military, historic attempts at, 420.
- Conservation, of mineral wealth, 156; of natural resources, 142.
- Constitution, text of, *Appendix*.
- Constitutional Convention of 1787, 301, 370, 389; Constitutions, state, differences in details, 373.
- Consumer, direct buying of farm products, 285.
- Control of members of a community, 22, 23, 24.
- Conventions, nominating, 331.
- Cook County, Ill., organization of government, 345.
- Coöperation, in communities, aided by good newspapers, 73; in beautifying our community, 187; between legislative and executive departments of national government, 414; in caring for the unfortunate, 125; for good health in the community, 100; government as a means of, 315; in improving living conditions, 133, 135, 137; in political groups, 21; in increasing opportunities for recreation, 122; in the family, 7-11; in making good roads, 166; in securing opportunities for recreation, 116, 122; relation to success, 17; why necessary in any community, 13-25.
- Coöperation, international, stimulated by the League of Nations, 430.
- Coöperative associations of farmers, 288.
- Corporation, advantages as a business organization, 244, 245; study of, 234, 242; the city as a, 353.
- Cotton gin, invention of, 225.
- Council, city, 355.
- Counties, in South, officers of, 341.
- Country, excursions to, 119.
- County, school system of, 29.
- County courts, 382.
- County funds for schools, 46.
- County government, 336; why sometimes inefficient, 344.
- County highways, 162.
- County-manager plan, the, 346, 363.
- County-township government, form of, 343.
- Court of Arbitration, International, 425.
- Courts, Federal system of, 409; state system of, 381.
- Covenant, of the League of Nations, 429.
- Crime, prevention of, 126, 137; reasons for, 135.
- Criminals, treatment of, 136.
- Crops, government help in improving, 281.
- Cumberland Road, the, 176.
- Custom, a means of controlling members of a community, 22.
- Customs taxes, 415.

- Dayton plan, for city government, 362.
- Deadlocks, political, between legislative and executive departments of national government, 413.
- Declaration of Independence, the foundation of our democracy, 297.
- Defectives, care of, 129.
- Democratic party, the, 326.
- Democracy, changing meaning of, 301; in colonial days, taught by New England town meeting, 299; influence of public schools, 36; meaning of, 293-308.
- Departments, executive, in national government, 396, 398.
- Dependents, care of, 127.
- Des Moines plan, the, 361.
- Detective bureau, of police department, 84.
- Direct nominations, 332.
- Direct selling, by farmers, 288.
- Disarmament, after World War, the question of, 431.
- Disasters, the prevention of, 131.
- Disease, effect upon industries of the nation, 98; how spread is prevented, 109; losses from, 98.
- Disputes, international, arbitration of, 425. *See* Arbitration and International relations.
- Disputes, labor, 260-70; arbitration by national government, 269.
- Distribution, of farm products, problems of, 285.
- District, school system of, 28, 44.
- District courts, 411.
- Division of powers, in county-township form of local government, 343.
- Duties, on imported goods, 414.
- Dwellings, investigation of problems of, 2.
- East, traditions of life and government different from those of the West, 306.
- Editor, function on newspaper, 72.
- Editorial policy of a newspaper, how determined, 75.
- Education, 28-54; Bureau of, 30; our heritage of, 28, 32; place of the library in, 50; place of the church in, 59; state laws concerning, 371.
- Elections (city), political parties in, 357; citizens' duties in connection with, 333; the citizen's part in, 319.
- Emigration, early, western, problems of transportation, 166.
- Employers, and the labor problem, 263.
- Engineering profession, how connected with conservation of resources, 159.
- England, government of, 296.
- Erie Canal, the, 169. *See* Canals.
- Excess profits tax, the, 416.
- Executive department, of state government, 379; of national government, 396, 398.
- Executive duties of Congress, 408.
- Extension courses, offered by colleges and universities, 50.
- Factories, reasons for growth of, 223; relation to the community, 221.
- Factory system, beginnings of, 33, 224.
- Family, how connected with good citizenship, 2; influence of, habits and instruction, 8, 10; limited education by means of, 30; services of, 4-12.
- Farewell Address*, Washington's, 421.
- Fairs, county, 284.
- Far-Eastern Treaty, the, 433.
- Farm bureaus, 282.
- Farmer, how affected by industrial revolution, 278.
- Farmers, coöperative associations of, 288.
- Farming, industry of, 273-91. *See* Agriculture.
- Federal Aid Road Act, 178.
- Federal courts, system of, 409, 411.
- Fire prevention, 90-93.
- Fire protection, 80.
- Fire-fighting apparatus, 92.
- Fires, chief causes of, 87.
- Floods, how they can be controlled, 148.
- Food, problem of supplying a community, 273.
- Food and Drug Act, enforcement of, 110.
- Food inspection, 104.
- Foreign population, elements of, 310. *See* Immigration and Immigrants.
- Forest fires, damage by, 151.
- Forest reserves, 152.
- Forestry, wasteful, 150.
- France, government of, 296.
- Freedom of speech, guaranteed by the Constitution, 71; personal as guaranteed by Constitution, 316.
- Freshets, damaged by, 151.
- Fuel conservation, 153.
- Fulton, Robert, 169.
- Future, making provision for, 146.
- Galveston plan, of city government, 359.

- Carbage, a menace to public health, 106.
 Germany, government of, 295.
 Gompers, Samuel, 259.
 Government, attitude toward natural resources, 293; form in early settlements, 338; functions of, 22; help in adjusting labor disputes, state and local, 267; national, 269; obligations to citizens, 316; theory in American colonies, 70; various types explained, 295.
 Government, city, 350-68.
 Government, local, 336-49.
 Government, national or federal, 387-416; arbitration in labor disputes, 269; obligations to citizens, 316.
 Government, state, 368-85.
 Government, township and county, 336.
 Governor, chief executive of the state, 378.
 Grand jury, action of, 382.
- Habits and opinions, influence of family upon, 7.
 Hague Conferences upon international arbitration, 424.
 Hamilton, Alexander, 326.
 Harding, Warren G., as leader, 396, 434.
 Health, the foundation of good citizenship, 97; community, importance of, 95.
 Health departments, 109.
 Health habits, the formation of, 98.
 High schools, earliest demand for, 35.
 Highways, a study of, 162.
 Holy Alliance, the, 422.
 Home missionary societies, 63.
 Home-making, woman's primary function, 215.
 Homestead Act, the, 277, 281.
 Hospitals, opportunities to help in, 126.
 House of Representatives, state, 374; United States, 401.
 Housing, problems of, 3; improvement of conditions, 134.
 Hughes, Charles Evans, 432.
 Hygiene and physical training, in schools, III.
- Illinois plan, of state government, 380, 381.
 Immigrants, Americanization of, 35, 37, 42; attracted by opportunities in the West, 307; education of, 35; effect upon American history, 313; instruction in American ideals, 42; our debt to, 4; reasons for coming to America, 313. *See* Foreign population.
 Immigration, beginnings of, 4; effect upon farming, 280; in United States history, 4; study of, 310.
 Immigration and Housing Commission, the, 251.
 Impeachment, Senate's part in, 408.
 Import taxes, 415.
 Income tax, federal, 416.
 Indictment, by grand jury, 383.
 Indirect taxation, examples of, 415.
 Industrial Accident Board, the, 250.
 Industrial Conciliation Board, the, 250.
 Industrial groups, relation to daily necessities of life, 19.
 Industrial Relations, Kansas Court of, 268.
 Industrial Revolution, the, 227; changes brought to the industry of farming, 278.
 Industrial system, changes in, 33, 35, 39; how changes have necessitated new interpretations of Constitution, 393.
 Industries, and transportation systems, 197; relation to the community, 222; relation of state government to, 234.
 Industry, abundant capital required in, 236; family training in, 9, 33; large-scale, demands of, 246; losses caused by disease, 97; state laws concerning, 371.
 Infancy, human, meaning of long period, 5.
 Inheritance tax, the, 385.
 Initiative and referendum, the, 320, 360.
 Inspection, food, 104.
 Inspiration, offered by the church, 61.
 Insurance, fire, 90.
 Interdependence, among nations, 425.
 Internal revenue, 416.
 International labor unions, 257.
 International relations, 419-34. *See* Arbitration.
 Interdependence in the community, 231. *See* Coöperation.
 Interstate Commerce Commission, 173.
 Inventions, effect upon factories, 223, 226.
 Investments, wisdom in making, 143.
 Irrigation, 149.
 Isolation, in world affairs, America's policy of, 421.
- Jackson, Andrew, 302, 327.
 Jamestown colony, labor in, 209.
 Jefferson, Thomas, 297, 301, 326.
 Journalism, qualities needed in, 76.
 Judicial duties of Congress, 408.
 Judicial power, federal, 411.
 Jury, trial by, 382.

- Justice, state administration of, 382; federal system of courts, 409.
- Justice of the peace, disputes handled by, 382.
- Kansas Court of Industrial Relations, 268.
- Knights of Columbus, 62.
- Labor, importance in maintaining communication and transportation, 182.
- Labor, Department of, 249.
- Labor disputes, 260.
- Labor problem, how it is being solved by employers, 263. *See* Capital.
- Lands, free, influence in spreading democracy, 307.
- Lands, vacant, government's interest in, 277.
- Language, value of, 6.
- Large-scale production, more economical than small-scale, 239, 241.
- Law, a means of controlling members of a community, 24; necessity for respect for, 316, 317.
- Law-making, the citizen's part in, 320.
- Laws, enactment by state legislatures, 376; how passed by Congress, 407; prime purpose of, 135.
- League of Nations, established, 428; meetings of, 429.
- League to Enforce Peace, the, 426.
- Legislatures, state, 374. *See* Congress; relation to cities, 353.
- Leisure time, profitable use of, 120.
- Liberty, personal, safeguarded by government, 315.
- Libraries, public, their place in education, 50.
- Life, conservation by government agencies, 110.
- Life and property, protection of, 82.
- Limitation of Armaments, Conference for, 396, 431.
- Lincoln, Abraham, 303, 328.
- Local government, division of powers in, 343; in cities, 350-66; in townships and counties, 336-49.
- Local issues, confusion with state and national, 358.
- Locomotives, invention of, 170.
- Long ballot, disadvantages of, 358.
- Losses by fire, yearly amount in United States, 87.
- Luxury taxes, 416.
- Machinery, effect upon factory system, 224, 227; improvements in, 229; in industrial life, 226.
- Machinery, farming, introduction of, 279.
- Machinery, textile, introduction of, 33.
- Magistrates, of city courts, disputes handled by, 382.
- Mail service, its part in community life, 179.
- Mann, Horace, 34.
- Manufacturing, in colonial homes, 33, 35, 223; in factories, 223.
- Marketing, coöperative, 283.
- Mayor, the, 355.
- Mayor-plus-council, plan of city government, 355.
- McCormick reaper, invention of, 280.
- Membership in a community, how felt, 16. *See* Coöperation.
- Mental defects, a cause of dependency, 129.
- Metals, a national asset, 156.
- Middle colonies, character of, 339.
- Military conquest of the world, futility of attempts at, 420.
- Milk, inspection of, 104, 106.
- Mills, Caleb, 34.
- Mineral resources, importance of, 156.
- Monroe Doctrine, the, 422.
- Music, value as recreation, 121.
- Nation, educational work of, 30.
- National government, powers extended since adoption of Constitution, 392. *See* Government, national.
- National highways, 163.
- National labor unions, 256.
- National parks, 122.
- National support of public education, 34, 44-48.
- National War Labor Board, 269.
- Natural resources, relation of a democratic government to, 293.
- Naturalization, main points in, 312. *See* Immigration.
- Naval holiday, 432.
- Naval limitations treaty, the, 433.
- Navies, the scrapping of, 432.
- Necessities of life, supplied by coöperation of numerous people, 19.
- New England, the town meeting in, 299.
- New England colonies, life and government in, 299, 338.
- News, sources used by newspapers, 74.

- Newspaper, purposes of, 67; services of, 72, 73.
- Nominations, of political candidates, 331; long list disadvantageous to voters, 357.
- Obligations to citizens, 316.
- Obligations to government, 317.
- Occupational life of a community, 207.
- Occupations, study of, 207-18.
- Offenders against law, why they should be taught good citizenship, 136. *See* Crime.
- Office-holding, the good citizen's attitude, 333.
- Officers, of counties in the South, 341.
- Officers, public, qualifications of, 319.
- Officers, town, 341.
- Opinion, public, moulded by newspapers, 70.
- Opinions and habits, influence of family upon, 7.
- Opportunity, equality of, 37.
- Ordinance of 1787, education under, 33.
- Organization, of executive departments, 399.
- Organization of a group, or community, steps in, 14.
- Organized labor, 251. *See* Labor.
- Pacific, maintenance of peace in, 433. *See* Washington Conference.
- Pan-Americanism, 423.
- Panama Canal, the, 176.
- Paris Peace Conference of 1919, 428.
- Park system, a study of, 187.
- Parks and playgrounds, need for, 119.
- Parties, political influence in national government, 413.
- Partnership, contrasted with corporation organization, 245.
- Patrol, police, 83.
- Party, political, in city elections, 357; membership in, 325.
- Penn, William, 194.
- Permanent Court of Arbitration, for international disputes, 425. *See* Arbitration.
- Philanthropic societies, work of, 131.
- Philanthropies, investigation of, 57; originated and assisted by churches, 62.
- Physical defects, a cause of dependency, 129.
- Physicians, part in safeguarding public health, 111.
- Pioneer towns, protection of life and property in, 82.
- Plan, lacking in growing communities, 193; city planning, 187.
- Police protection, 80, 83.
- Policy of a newspaper, how determined, 75.
- Political groups, purpose of, 21.
- Political organization of a community, 324.
- Populist party, the, 329, 330.
- Population, of largest cities, 192.
- Postal system, United States, 387.
- Poverty, relief and prevention of, 125, 133.
- Power, water, 154. *See* Conservation.
- Powers of Congress, defined by Constitution, 391, 401; of President, 396; of state government, 370, 391.
- Preamble, to Constitution, quoted, 390.
- Preparations for War, effect upon European countries, 424.
- President, nomination and election of, 394; as national leader, 394; powers of, 396.
- Press, a free, 70.
- Prevention of fires, a community's part in, 90.
- Prices of farm products, stabilizing, 290.
- Primaries, direct, 332; citizens' duty in, 333.
- Principles, of American Federation of Labor, 258.
- Private enterprises, how encouraged by state government, 234.
- Private property, improvements and their effect upon development of a community, 194.
- Private schools, 49.
- Privileges of citizenship, the, 315.
- Produce, farm, problem of marketing, 285, 289.
- Production, large-scale more profitable than small-scale, 239.
- Profit-sharing, Henry Ford's practice of, 266.
- Program, of League to Enforce Peace, 427.
- Prohibition party, the, 330.
- Protection, fire and police, 80-93.
- Public, benefited by large-scale methods of production, 241.
- Public affairs, importance of wide popular interest in, 68.
- Public education, beginnings of, 346.
- Public Health Service, United States, 111.
- Public opinion, a means of controlling members of a community, 23.
- Public School System, investigation of, 28.

- Punishments for crime, public attitude toward, 137. *See* Crime.
- Radio, effect in extending the community, 181.
- Railroads, the beginnings of, 170; encouraged by government, 172; regulated by government, 173.
- Railway Labor Board, the, 174.
- Ranger, forest, work of, 152.
- Ratio, naval strength, 432.
- Recall, the, 361.
- Reclamation Service, United States, 150.
- Recreation, educational side of, 53; effect of, 117; why needed by workers, 116.
- Red Cross, 62.
- Referendum, the, 320, 361. *See* Initiative.
- Representatives, in state legislatures, 375; United States House of, 401.
- Republican party, the, 328.
- Reservoirs, 102.
- Resources, natural, conservation of, 142; relation of government to, 293. *See* Conservation.
- Responsibilities, the citizen's, 320.
- Revenues, city, how obtained, 365; of counties and townships, 348; of state, how obtained, 384; power of Congress in raising, 414.
- Revolution, purposes for which the war was fought, 298.
- Rights, individual, 10; of citizens, 315.
- Rivers and Harbors Committee, in House of Representatives, 406.
- Roads, effect in development of community spirit, 165, 176.
- Roosevelt, Theodore, 304.
- Rules, Committee in House of Representatives, 405.
- Rural free delivery of mail, 180.
- Russia, government of, 295, 297.
- Safety appliances, in factories, 134.
- Sanitation, problems of, 100.
- Saving, systematic, 142.
- Schools, a community's vital interest in, 31; how they develop democracy, 36; effect on character of pupils, 38; vocational training, 39; special, 41; for adults, 42; social centers, 43; services performed by good teachers, 44; how supported, 44; private, 49; church, 49.
- Secretary of Education, a proposed Cabinet officer, 48.
- Selectmen, in New England towns, 341.
- Self-government, and the American colonists, 299; industrial, experiments in, 263.
- Senate, state, 374.
- Senate, United States, 401; committees in, 406; executive and judicial duties of, 408.
- Services rendered by city government, 351.
- Settlements, social, 64.
- Sewage, disposal, 96, 108.
- Short ballot, the, 361.
- Smith-Hughes Law, 48.
- Smith-Lever Act, of 1914, 282.
- Smith-Towner Bill, 48.
- Smoke nuisance, control of, 103.
- Social centers, the schools as, 43.
- Social service work, 63; value of productive labor, 211.
- Socialism, explained, 296.
- Soil, fertility must be safeguarded, 147.
- South, officers of counties in, 341.
- South America, relation of United States to, 423.
- Southern colonies, life and government in, 299, 339.
- Square deal, Roosevelt's belief in, 304.
- Stabilization of prices, for farm products, 290.
- Standard of living, how connected with thrift, 143.
- State, government of, 368; school system of, 29.
- State constitutions, fundamental principles of, 373.
- State government, relation to industries, 234.
- State highways, 163.
- State institutions for unfortunate children, 127.
- State support of public education, 34, 44-48.
- Steamboat, invention of, 169.
- Stockholders, how far responsible for debts of a corporation, 245.
- Stocks and bonds, of corporation, as investments, 245.
- Streets, arrangement in cities, 193; how affected by contour of ground, 196.
- Street-car system, a problem of city transportation, 198.
- Strikes, 260. *See* Industrial disputes, and labor.
- Strikes, railroad, effect of, 184.
- Submarine and poison gas treaty, the, 433

- Success, and coöperation, 17.
 Superior courts, state, 382.
 Supervisors, county, in the South, 341.
 Supreme court, state, 383.
 Supreme Court, United States, 411; decisions upon constitutionality of laws, 392, 393.
 Switzerland, government of, 295.
- Tariff, defined, 415.
 Tax, state, 384; federal income, 416; inheritance, 385.
 Taxation, effect of World War upon, 416; local government supported by, 348.
 Tax rate, in cities, how obtained, 365.
 Teachers, services rendered to pupils, 44.
 Telegraph, effect in extending the community, 181.
 Telephone, effect in extending the community, 181.
 Textile industry, in early days, 223.
 Thrift, the meaning of, 142.
 Tolerance for others, a duty of citizens, 317.
 Town officers of, 341.
 Town meeting, New England, 299, 339, 340.
 Townner-Sterling Bill, 48.
 Township, a form of local government, 336.
 Trade union, the, 252. *See* Labor.
 Traffic, police control of, 84.
 Trails, overland, 167.
 Training, vocational, necessity for, 215, 218.
 Transcontinental railroads, 171.
 Transportation, 162-84; how facilities effect location of industries, 197; how planned to accommodate industries of a city, 197; how systems are maintained, 182.
 Transportation Act of 1920, 174.
 Treaties, process of making, 419; Senate's part in making, 408.
 "Turnpikes," 177.
 Turkey, government of, 295.
- Unemployment, lack of education a cause of, 130.
 Unfortunate classes of society, betterment work for, 125-39.
 Unions, labor, purposes of, 254; workmen organized into, 251. *See* Labor.
 United Press, the, 74.
- Unknown soldier, services at grave of, 181.
 Urban population, increase in, 192. *See* Cities.
- Vacation, purpose of, 119. *See* Recreation.
 Ventilation, of public buildings, 103. *See* Air, pure.
 Versailles, Treaty of, 408, 413.
 Virginia, colonization of, 208.
 Vocation, suitable choice of, 212.
 Vocational training, given by public schools, 39.
 Voting, a privilege of the highest order, 319.
- Wage scale, 261.
 War, European preparations for, 424, 431. *See* World War.
 War Message, President Wilson's, 305.
 Washington, George, 300; upon European alliances, 421.
 Washington, D.C., our national capital, 195.
 Washington Conference, for limitation of armaments, 431.
 Waste, in large factories, utilization of, 239.
 Wastefulness, a fault of the American people, 146.
 Water conservation, 153.
 Water supply, study of, 95; essential to good health in the community, 100.
 Waterways, in the early history of our country, 168; recent extension of transportation facilities, 176.
 Ways and Means Committee, in House of Representatives, 405.
 Welfare work, coördination of, 132.
 West, influence upon the democracy of our country, 306.
 Western emigration, problems of protection of life and property, 82; early difficulties of, 167.
 Whitney, Eli, 225.
 Wilson, Woodrow, 305, 329; "Fourteen Points," 395, 428.
 Women in industry, 215.
 Work, why necessary in modern life, 209; value to individual and to community, 210, 211, 212.
Worker and the State, The (Dean), quoted, 231.
 Working day, the, 261.

- Workmen, organized into unions, 251. | Y.M.C.A., 62.
 See Labor, and Unions. | Y.M.H.A., 62.
- World unity, impossible through military | Y.W.C.A., 62.
conquest, 420. | *Yearbook*, of the Department of Agricul-
ture, 281.
- World War, importance of food in, 275; ef-
fect in reclaiming farms, 278; effect on
autocratic governments, 295. | Zoning, in cities, 199.

